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ART. I. — The History of the State of Maine, from its First Discovery, A. D. 1602, to the Separation, A. D. 1820, inclusive. By William D. Williamson. Hallowell. Glazier, Masters, & Co. 1832. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 660. 714.

WE confess that we were at first somewhat dismayed at the sight of this book. To go through, as veritable chroniclers of the press, with nearly fourteen hundred pages of octavo text, embracing numerous, full, and closely compacted notes in fine type, and to vouch, as reviewers, that we have read that which we attempt to remark upon, is no slight affair in this age of books, where we may say with Dr. Johnson, that success may be without applause, and

diligence without reward.

If the writer should tell us that he who buckles him in his belt cannot write in less space, we may admit the sincerity of the apology, without feeling all its force. It is difficult indeed for the historian in every instance to make the right gauge, and he would prefer the charge of being too minute, to a well-founded complaint of meagre effort. Whether he shall go more or less into detail in the narration of events, in the delineation of character, in philosophical disquisitions and reflections, and in the general construction of his story, must be left very much to the discretion of the writer, for there is no invariable standard by which to judge.

There is a reason why the historian of Maine may labor under this difficulty; and it arises from the fact, that Maine, vol. II. No. I.

during a large portion of her existence, has been part and parcel of Massachusetts; and in treating the one, the history of the other must be introduced to a greater or less extent. Besides, Maine, like Kentucky, has been shingled over with land-patents, though of a different kind, as the grants gave separate and conflicting claims of jurisdiction and government, actually exercised, and requiring in the historian ample notice. But after making the allowance required by these considerations, we think the general opinion will be, that the work under review is too diffuse and prolix. There are many things in the history of a people that should be briefly related, where the work is designed for general circulation, but which may be described very much at length, if the object be to gather and preserve materials for future history. Of this latter class are our various town histories, the collections of the local antiquary, and those of our various historical societies; while the work of our author we presume to be of different design; its true purpose being to give results, rather than minutely extended detail.

This fault of our author, then, is one touching the propriety of history. There is also a fault in his style; it does not possess any peculiar character, but is generally loose, and not seldom erring in grammar, and herein there is manifest want of care,—a want of that diligent culture which

is important to no one more than to the historian.

The author gives a list of works that he has examined in preparing his history; this list is pretty full, and does credit to his industry. But there are several sources from which he does not appear to have drawn. The goodly store of materials in the library of Harvard University has not been touched; the old edition of Winthrop's Journal, which ends in 1645, is used, instead of Savage's edition, which contains the narrative to the time of Winthrop's death, Had this last edition been used, our author in 1649. would not speak of the supposed Indian deed to John Wheelwright and others, in 1629, of lands between Piscataqua and Merrimack, as being simply questionable; [see vol. 1. p. 461,] but would yield his entire assent to Mr. Savage's thorough and incontrovertible argument against the authenticity of the instrument. Again, our author consults only the first two volumes of Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts; for he remarks under the year 1749, [vol. 2d,

p. 260,] "Here closes the History of Massachusetts by Mr. Hutchinson. It is said he finished it in 1766." Now the truth is, that Governor Hutchinson, who died in 1780, left in manuscript a continuation of his History, brought down to the close of his administration of the Province government in 1774. This was published in London by Murray, in 1828, and there are several hundred copies of it in this country; and we take this occasion to say, that it is exceedingly well written, and is remarkable withal for its candor, fidelity, and impartiality, — qualities ever deserving of high praise, and especially so in this instance, when we call to mind the fact, that it embraces a period in which Hutchinson was most intimately versed, and in which the whole course of events, and the whole conduct of the popular party in opposition to

him, were subjects of unceasing, bitter irritation.

Our author speaks of a Court of Chancery established in 1692, "to hear all matters of equity not relievable at Common Law," and "holden in Boston by three Commissioners, assisted by five Masters in Chancery, all of whom were appointed by the Governor and Council." But this is not an entirely correct account of the first organization of this court. It was established in 1692, "to be holden and kept by the Governor, or such other as he should appoint Chancellor, assisted by eight or more of the Council, - at such times and places as the Governor or Chancellor for the time being should from time to time appoint." This law was repealed nearly two years afterwards, because the "court, so constituted, was by experience found not agreeable with the circumstances of this province, in divers respects not then so well considered or foreseen." The repealing act then constitutes a court, such as is described by our author. This act, for reasons which are not known, was disapproved by the crown; and the court, if it ever had any existence, was of short duration.

We have made these remarks, not from a hypercritical spirit, but from a sacred regard to the truth of history, and from a persuasion that the work before us possesses substantial merits, far outweighing any censure we may be inclined to bestow.

The state of Maine, from the extent of its territory, from the character of its population, and from its great natural resources, lays claim to the regard of the student in American history. Settlements were here made earlier than in any other part of New England, and a large portion of the territory, until the peace of 1763, was debatable land between the rival powers of England and France. Situate on the frontier of our country, with a scattered population, dotting here and there an extensive sea-coast, with "the interminable wood" in the back ground, the people were peculiarly exposed to the aggressions of the French, and the Indians, their cruel allies, beyond the expectation or even hope of relief.

Nearly two hundred pages of this history are consumed in an Introduction, describing "the limits of the state; its geography," (without a map,) "climate, vegetable productions, native animals, and minerals." Much of this is far from being appropriate matter of history, and might therefore have well been spared in this work; for we are far from thinking that the dividing line between national history, natural history, &c., are mere melting lines, never to be regarded; but rather, that they mark distinct provinces of learning and science, which are well to be observed by those, who are

pursuing their investigations for the public.

Our author then proceeds with the proper history of Maine, beginning with the early French, Spanish, and English voyages to this country; and here, and indeed throughout his volumes, he gives abundant fruits of his learning, patient industry, and commendable research. Throughout a long and laborious examination, he has selected his materials with judgment, and has impressed us with a conviction of his fidelity and impartiality in setting forth his narrative. It is a work far exceeding in value, and we believe in general accuracy, the volume published many years since by the late Governor Sullivan, and is well entitled to be regarded as authority on the subject of the history of Maine.

It would far exceed the bounds of our monthly limits, and the patience of our readers, to give a sketch of the various charters of the several portions of country now embraced in the flourishing state of Maine. We shall therefore only mention a few of them, and those incidentally. The earliest attempt made by the English under the charter of the Plymouth Company, granted by James the First to settle New England, or what was then called North Virginia, was in 1607, under the auspices of Lord Chief Justice Popham, Sir Fer-

dinando Gorges, and others. The expedition they set forth was kindly received by the natives, although they were still smarting with the sense of the injury inflicted but a short time previous by Weymouth, in basely kidnapping several of their number. The English formed a settlement at the mouth of the Sagadahoc or Kennebec river. Here, widely separated from the civilized world, they passed a wretched winter, exposed to the severities of cold, and other privations incident to their situation; so that on the approach of spring, with diminished numbers and energies, they hasten-

ed to return to England.

Gorges possessed a bold, persevering character. No obstacles could dishearten him, and he therefore continued to equip vessels for fishing and traffic, and sent out Richard Vines, and others of his servants, to promote the object he had in view. These men, in 1617, passed the winter in the neighbourhood of Saco, unharmed by the pestilence that was then raging on every side, and destroying the native inhabitants of the country by thousands. It was this pestilence, more than any thing else, that, by desolating the population, opened the way to the ingress of the English, which followed shortly after. Settlements were made on the island of Monhegan in 1622, and by Vines and others at Winter Harbor in Saco, in 1623, which may be considered the earliest permanent establishment of the English within the borders of Maine.

Up to the year 1630, the Plymouth Council had made no less than eight separate grants of territory, embracing under various names nearly the whole country from the river Merrimack to the Penobscot. But soon after, they became unpopular at home for divers but contradictory reasons. merchants disliked the monopoly of trade; the Virginia Company were swayed by self-interest; the House of Commons believed the council to be under the influence of the king; prelates shuddered, because New England was an asylum for the Puritans, "while the king himself suspected the colonies were in the enjoyment of liberties and privileges wholly inconsistent with his notions of regal power and government." The council however divided the whole patent into twelve royal provinces, with the intention of assigning to each a separate government, with a Governor General over the whole country; but they met with many

obstacles in their progress towards a final arrangement, and became so much discouraged, that they at last resolved to resign their charter. Gorges was appointed, by the king, Governor General over the whole of New England; but he never assumed the exercise of his office, and it soon faded into a mere empty name. In 1639, he obtained a charter of all the country between the rivers Piscataqua and Kennebec, and from the sea, a distance of one hundred and twenty miles to the west. This was called *The Province of Maine*. Gorges immediately established a territorial government in his province, which was continued under many

embarrassments till his death, in 1647.

Four years after Gorges's death, Massachusetts, ever ready to extend her dominions, by a new construction that she placed upon her charter, laid claim to a great portion of the Province of Maine, as being within her bounds. And notwithstanding the opposition made to her pretensions, she persisted in her determination, and finally succeeded in establishing her authority and government over the people of the territory. This was the commencement of that connexion between the two territories, which continued with but little intermission nearly one hundred and sixty-seven years. If the attempt were bold and the success triumphant, Maine had every reason to rejoice in the union. It gave her at once the benefit of the wholesome laws and wise institutions of the parent province: it gave her a generous government, a sound ecclesiastical polity, an educated clergy, and the noble system of free schools: it gave her the protection of a stronger arm, and the claim to a surer defence; which, during the whole period of their union, was never withdrawn, nor were her interests ever postponed.

In 1664, Charles the Second gave to his brother James, Duke of York, a charter of the whole country from Pemaquid to St. Croix. This has been frequently called *The Territory of Sagadahoc*; and it included, with the territory granted to Gorges, nearly the whole of what now constitutes the state of Maine. Sir Ferdinando Gorges's grandson succeeded to his grandfather's land title; and in 1664, the king directed the authorities of the Colony of Massachusetts to restore to him his province, or assign their reasons for withholding it. Gorges's agent soon after came to this country, in company with the commissioners sent over by the king, and brought

with him a letter from the king, ordering that Massachusetts should restore the possession and government of the Province of Maine to the proprietor. But that colony strenuously insisted upon her right to possess and govern the country; and neither fear of the king, nor the threats and transactions of the commissioners could compel her to swerve from her purpose. Indeed, she made a new survey of her territory, and included within her limits a part of the Sagadahoc patent, which had been made to the Duke of York. Here also she established and exercised all the functions

of government.

Gorges no doubt was much incensed by these proceedings, and by the strenuous efforts made by Massachusetts to retain what she alleged to be her proper soil; but wearied out by his fruitless endeavours, and not possessing the energy of spirit, which distinguished Sir Ferdinando, he listened to a proposition made by the agent of that colony, and, in 1677, sold all his title to Massachusetts for £1250 sterling. Thus was an end put to a long and vexatious controversy, and quiet was afforded to the people of the province. But Charles was provoked, that Massachusetts should presume to make the purchase, when he himself was negotiating for the territory; and he wrote a letter to the colony government, in which he says, "We were much surprised, while listening to the complaints of Mr. Gorges, that you should presume, without asking our royal permission, to purchase his interest in the province of Maine; acquainted, as you know we are, with some effects of the severe hand you have holden over our subiects there." "But," says our author, "this authoritative address had no great influence upon the government and people of the colony. They were not strangers to their rights. The purchase was open and fair; made at the desire of the provincials themselves, when they were driven to extremities by an Indian war, and when nearly all the assistance and protection they were receiving, proceeded from Massachusetts." [vol. 1. p. 555.]

In 1680, the king again wrote to the colony of Massachusetts, saying, "The title deeds of Maine, we expect, will be surrendered to the crown on the advancement of the purchase money and interest." Massachusetts, however, knew her rights as a purchaser, and determined not

to surrender them, and continued to exercise her proper authority in Maine till the period of the dissolution of her charter, in 1684. To this succeeded the short administrations of Dudley and Andros; after which, Massachusetts resumed her old charter jurisdiction, which she retained till, by the provincial charter of October 7, 1691, Maine and Sagadahoc, under the general designation of the *Province of Maine*, were united to her government; and so con-

tinued till the final separation, in 1820.

At the close of the Revolutionary War, the subject of separation, and formation of an independent state, began to be extensively discussed by many of the leading men in Maine. The poor generally were in favor of the measure; so were those who were ambitious of office; and many intelligent citizens joined their ranks, believing that a separate government would be of general benefit. To promote this scheme, the FALMOUTH GAZETTE was established in January, 1785, being the earliest newspaper published in Maine. Gentlemen from various towns assembled in the autumn of that year, by whose advice a convention of delegates from the people met in January, 1786. A second convention was chosen afterwards, which met in September, 1786, and prepared a statement of the "evils and grievances" they experienced, and an estimate of the expenses of a separate government. A committee was also appointed to petition the General Court for a separation, and to address the people of Maine upon the matter. The convention then adjourned to January, 1787, by which time a powerful party had been organized in opposition to the separation. On an examination of the adjourned meeting of the votes from the various towns, it appeared, that out of 93 towns and plantations, "53 had not been represented in any of the conventions, and 8 of the others had sent in no returns. Of 994 votes returned, 645 were in favor of separation. committee were instructed to present the petition to the General Court, or retain it at their discretion. They presented it in the winter session of 1797-8, and it was referred to a committee in each branch. "Meanwhile, the convention was kept alive by adjournments, till September, 1788, expiring at last by reason of the non-attendance of its mem-Massachusetts also passed several acts, which were of essential service to the inhabitants of Maine, and served to quiet the excitement that had prevailed.

Soon after the close of the last war, the subject was again resumed, the opinion prevailing more than ever, that Maine ought to have a separate government. In May, 1816, a vote was taken in the towns and plantations of Maine, by the authority of the Legislature, and it was found that there were 10,393 yeas, and 6,501 nays, the whole number of legal voters being 37,828. This vote was in order to determine whether the legislature should be requested to give its consent to the separation, and the erection of Maine into a separate state. An Act, however, was passed at the ensuing June session, prescribing the terms of separation, and directing a vote to be taken on the following question, viz. "Is it expedient, that the District of Maine be separated from Massachusetts, and become an independent state?" Delegates were also to be chosen at the same time, who were to meet in convention, and to proceed to form a constitution, should they find, that at least a majority of five to four of the votes returned was in favor of the proposed separation. On canvassing the returns, there were found yeas, 11,969, nays 10,347, which gave a much smaller majority than the act of the legislature required. However, as there was a considerable majority of the members of the convention in favor of separation, they contrived a pretty ingenious plan to make the worse appear the better reason, to make that, which was less than 5 to 4 appear equal to 5 to 4, and a member from Alfred figured largely in the mathematical solution. "The Committee reported, that the aggregate of yeas, in the towns and plantations, giving majorities in favor of a separation, compared with the nays, in those giving a majority against it, exhibited an affirmative larger than as five to four," and that this was a substantial compliance with the spirit, if not with the letter of the act; and, strange as it may seem, this report was But, alas! the obdurate legislature was blind accepted. to this new process of mathematics, and the pretty scheme fell to the ground.

The question of separation was again revived in 1819, and gave rise to animated discussions between the friends and adversaries of the measure in Maine, who were divided, it would seem, very much in accordance with the old political parties. The people, however, decided by a vote of 17,091 to 7,132 in favor of the proposition, and, on the 15th

of March, 1820, Maine was admitted into the union, "on an

equal footing with the original states."

The reasons, at this time, for dividing the Commonwealth were cogent and satisfactory; and but few probably of those residing in Maine, who then opposed the separation, would now, were the question to be first tried, be found in opposition to the measure. In 1819, that territory had recovered from the effects of the last war with England, and from those unusual severities of climate which, in connexion with other circumstances, had driven off thousands of her hardy sons to the far west, and had induced a very common belief, that her country was not a fit habitation for man. Her population was again beginning to increase with rapidity, and with it a general confidence in her resources, and a new spirit of energy and enterprise. She therefore naturally enough began to feel the inconveniencies of her situation, as connected with the parent state, and to busy herself about the remedy. That connexion had been her safeguard in many scenes of distress, and her protection from absolute ruin, as our author very truly remarks: - but now it was no longer required, and the sense of former obligation was fast disappearing.

We have left ourselves but little room to speak of several The account subjects, which we had noted for comment. of the Indian wars is a very full and interesting portion of our author's work. An Indian war, in its aspect at the present day, is the feeble contention of a few savages against a powerful civilized nation. It is a mere pastime to the latter, while to the Indian, it is the warrant that deprives him of his home and country, and sends him a wanderer still farther into the wilderness. Not so in former days, when the whites were few in number, surrounded by dense forests. filled with lurking and insidious enemies, whose only notice of approach was manifest in the death blow of the tomahawk and the conflagration of dwellings; when the exposed husbandman went to the house of God, and to his daily task, with his gun upon his shoulder, with the same regularity that he bore the implements of his labor, and was forced to rely upon his own prowess and the strength of his own right arm as his only security against the sudden onset of his

foe.

Maine, with a wide frontier, and with an exceedingly sparse population, was particularly exposed to the desola-

tions of Indian warfare. From 1675, the era of Philip's war, to the capture of Quebec, a period of but eighty-five years, there were no less than six Indian wars, filling an aggregate of thirty-five years. At one time all the settlements, save two or three, were utterly broken up and destroyed; those that remained preserved but a feeble existence: from one quarter to a third of the inhabitants perished, and others were reserved for cruel torture or captivity. But the Indian was not always the aggressor; sometimes he was driven to revenge by the cruelties of the white man, or by his wanton violation of treaties. And it belongs to truth to say, that the instigations of the French, who lived among the natives, and gained their confidence, and converted them to the Catholic faith, or rather to its trappings and ceremonies, led them on to wage war against the English, when, if left to themselves, they would have cultivated peace and friendship. There was therefore no real abiding security, until the French were finally driven from the north, and resigned all their claims under the treaty at Paris in 1763. Up to this period, they laid claim to Sagadahoc, or the territory from the Kennebec to St. Croix, as being part of Acadia, granted by Henry of France to Sieur De Monts in 1603, and also as subsequently having the property thereof by virtue of the old treaty of St. Germains in 1632, and by the treaties of Breda and Ryswick.

The cause of the slow increase of the Province of Maine is to be attributed to the frequent reality and almost constant apprehension of French and Indian hostilities. But when the pressure was removed, she started up with all the vigor and elasticity of a youthful people. Towards the close of the seventeenth century so great was the poverty of the people, that they could not even repair their own Their county taxes were remitted, and the town of York was able to pay for a mill erected within its limits, only by giving the builder the mill site, the use of the stream, a lot of land, and by agreeing that the inhabitants should always carry their corn and other grain to that mill to be ground. The uncertainty of land titles was also a fruitful source of trouble, and tended much to retard the growth and prosperity of the province from an early period down to the present century. In 1753, the German settlers of the Waldo patent, a hardy, moral, and industrious race. were so much harassed by conflicting claims to the lands they had fairly purchased, that no less than three hundred families "sold their possessory estates," and removed to Carolina, where they joined a large number of their countrymen who had recently purchased a tract of land in the southwestern part of that province. The confusion of titles, and the entry of trespassers upon wild lands gave rise to numerous and perplexing lawsuits, and occasioned a great

amount of expense.

well known to need recapitulation.

In the war of the Revolution, Maine suffered her full share of misery, and manifested an ardent and sustaining spirit of patriotism. Her wide sea coast exposed her to sudden and overpowering incursions, from which her scattered population was hardly able to defend her. Our readers will recollect the burning of Falmouth by the infamous Mowett; the defence of Machias, the capture of St. John, the gallant but unfortunate Penobscot expedition of 1779, the seizure and escape of Gen. Wadsworth, and the brave exploits of some of the inhabitants of the coast in various maritime skirmishes. These constitute the chief Revolutionary Story of Maine. The history of the last war, in which Maine suffered considerably, is too recent and too

For a long series of years, the population of Maine was very small. We have no sufficient data to estimate the amount before 1764, when it was 24,020. The whole of Massachusetts in 1701 contained 70,000 souls, and in 1749, 220,000, but a small proportion, however, of this number belonged to Maine. In 1790, 1800, 1810, and 1820, the population was respectively 96,540, 151,719, 228,705, 298,335; while now it exceeds 400,000, showing a much greater increase from 1820 to 1830, than in any preceding term of ten years. No greater proof of the prosperity of a young country can be given than the rapid increase of its population; — and taking this as the criterion, we infer the palmy condition of our sometime adjunct, - now our younger sister. Her fisheries, which have been valuable to her from an early day, her ship building, her agriculture, her great natural advantages are permanent sources of fructifying wealth, which the industry of her people will turn to good account. In point of tonnnage, she stands much higher than any of the other states, save Massachusetts and New York; Massachusetts being much the highest on the list, and owning nearly one fourth of the tonnage of the whole Union.

Our author is entitled to much praise for his faithful and elaborate history, and generally for the manner in which he has executed his undertaking. He has collected a great fund of materials, and has given numerous and minute notices of many towns; — and though these perhaps might have found a more appropriate place in the collections of the Maine Historical Society, which has recently published an interesting volume, still we are not inclined to find fault with the place of deposit, but would rather commend our

author for collecting and preserving these notices.

And what is there to prevent Maine from becoming a large and prosperous commonwealth? Should she be miserably cut off from her just right by the wretched arbitration of the Dutch king, who, with sagacity equal to that of Walter Van Twiller of New Netherlands, discovered highlands in the bed of a river, she still would have a large territory remaining; she still would be rich in soil, in water carriage, and water power, and in the intelligence and industry of her Her importance and power, like that of the other states, depend upon the strength and integrity of the Union: if that fails her, she must suffer in common with the other members of the confederacy. Already are murmurs of discontent, and threats of separation borne to our ears. are in that singular position of a people in the excess of prosperity, and with every means of happiness within our power, growing wanton thereat, and for want of real evils, searching out imaginary ones, and turning the blessings which an indulgent God has showered upon us in unbounded profusion, into sources and occasions of gloomy discontent, and threats of open resistance to constituted authority. What will be the result of this state of things, or how far it may be worth while to regard the shadowy forms of the constitution when neither substance nor element is left, must depend upon events of no very distant occurrence, which perhaps an Almighty Being may overrule for the benefit and safety of the nation. Let it not be said, that nostris vitiis, non casu aliquo, rempublicam verbo retinemus, re ipsa vero jam pridem amisimus; but rather let every good citizen hope and declare that de posteris nostris et de illa immortalitate reipublicæ solicitor; quæ poterat esse perpetua si patris viveretur institutis et moribus.

ART. II. — Scholars' Cabinet Library, No. I. Life of Galileo Galilei: with Illustrations of the Advancement of Experimental Philosophy. Boston. William Hyde & Co. 1832. 12mo. pp. 307.

It is too late in the day to inquire whether a desire of posthumous fame be a reasonable and worthy principle of action. Its universality gives us reason to suppose it a constituent part of human nature. The fact that it acts the most powerfully upon the loftiest and purest minds, sufficiently evinces that it is not an ignoble principle. The splendid services and sacrifices to which it has prompted, show that it is friendly to man's interest, and that every rational means should be employed to excite and cherish it, and to give it the right direction. There is room for doubt whether man can perform a disinterested action. If he cannot, actions performed from a desire of posthumous fame, have at least the generous aspect and the benevolent tendency of pure disinterestedness. The greatest political services have been rendered by men who knew that they were making an entire sacrifice of themselves to the public good, and whose only hope was that their memories might be embalmed in the peace, the mild laws, the wise institutions which posterity would through their means enjoy. most glorious feats of military prowess, like that of Leonidas and his comrades, have been performed in the certain prospect of death, for the sake of a name which should live for-The most arduous scientific labors and the most important discoveries have been achieved by men, who have looked forward to neglect, contempt, and persecution through life, and have triumphantly endured all in the assurance that their fame, phenix-like, would spring forth in full splendor from their humble ashes. It would seem that God has implanted in the noblest spirits of his human family, a consciousness of immortality, a certainty that from their Elysian home they shall see justice awarded; shall hear the voice of their praise; shall be cheered by the gratitude and love of coming generations; shall behold the ever-ripening harvest of their labors and their virtues. Posthumous fame is a meed which posterity ought diligently to award when deserved. It should be awarded for the sake of those who

have earned it; for who can say that their spirits are insensible to the esteem in which their memories are held? It should be awarded too in order to cherish the same benevolent principle in the living. The honors paid to the dead have in all ages acted as strong motives to their successors to imitate their example. We are therefore always glad to see elaborate defences and eulogies of departed genius or virtue brought before the public eye. And the more generally works of this class are diffused the better; for they will be the more likely to attract the attention of those who would gladly devote themselves to truth, to virtue, or to the public good; and to encourage them by the hope, that, though ingratitude and reproach attend them to their graves, some pious hand will in due time disinter the elements of their fame.

It was for these and similar reasons, that we were pleased to see the life of Galileo in the Library of Useful Knowledge, - a work designed for the instruction of the great mass of the people. We have been much interested in the perusal of this biography, and are glad to see a reprint of it from our own metropolis, though, deprecating the multiplication of libraries, we are entirely willing that this should be the last, as well as the first number of the Scholars' Library. This work is marked by a minuteness of detail, and the frequent introduction of formidable foreign names, with which we would willingly dispense, were it not highly gratifying to witness the fidelity with which the friends of science have defended the Italian patriarch from plagiarists and calumniators. Our author, (who does not favour us with his name,) in his introduction, briefly, yet forcibly defends the claims of Galileo as the father of the inductive method of reasoning in philosophy, — an honor which long prescription has awarded to Bacon. But, at the first blush, it would seem hardly possible that Bacon should be entitled to this It would be an anomalous case in the history of philosophy, that a set of principles, not previously recognized in practice, should be reduced to system, and fairly stated and illustrated by a mere theorist. The skill with which Bacon codifies the laws of induction, show that they had long been the lex non scripta of the laboratory and observatory. They were the lex non scripta of Galileo. Before his life time, physical science had depended as much on authority

as philology did, and different theories with respect to the heavens, the elements, the air, weight, motion, &c., were maintained or opposed, not by experiment, but by citations from Aristotle. So great was the infatuation of those of Galileo's contemporaries who were famed for learning, that they placed the authority of the Stagirite above the evidence of their own senses.

"Oh, my dear Kepler," writes Galileo, "how I wish that we could have one hearty laugh together. Here, at Padua, is the principal professor of philosophy, whom I have repeatedly and urgently requested to look at the moon and planets through my glass, which he pertinaciously refuses to do. Why are you not here? What shouts of laughter we should have at this glorious folly! and to hear the professor of philosophy at Pisa laboring before the grand duke with logical arguments, as if with magical incantations, to charm the new planets [i. e. Jupiter's satellites,] out of the sky." pp. 92, 93.

The following is a specimen of the reasoning which was employed to prove the non-existence of Jupiter's satellites, — Galileo's first discovery by means of his own invention, the telescope. It is the language of Francesco Lizzi, a Florentine astronomer.

"There are seven windows given to animals in the domicile of the head, through which the air is admitted to the rest of the tabernacle of the body, to enlighten, to warm, and nourish it, which are the principal parts of the microcosm; two nostrils, two eyes, two ears, and a mouth; so in the heavens, as in a macrocosm, there are two favourable stars, too unpropitious, two luminaries, and Mercury alone undecided and indifferent. From which, and many other similar phenomena of nature. such as the seven metals, &c., which it were tedious to enumerate, we gather that the number of planets is necessarily seven. Moreover, the satellites are invisible to the naked eye, and therefore can exercise no influence on the earth, and therefore do not exist. Besides, as well the Jews and other ancient nations, as modern Europeans have adopted the division of the week into seven days, and have named them from the seven planets: now if we increase the number of the planets, this whole system falls to the ground." pp. 91, 92.

The science of astrology, (if science it may be called,) was doubtless as ancient as that of astronomy, and resulted naturally from the Ptolemaic system of the universe. Man is always searching for the ultimate end of each of God's

works, thus tacitly bearing witness to the truth that nothing The ancients, regarding the earth as the is made in vain. centre of the celestial sphere, and all the heavenly bodies simply as the satellites of the earth, naturally sought to assign some definite use to each. The magnitude and brilliancy of the sun and moon pointed them out as the greater and lesser light of the earth. But the light furnished by the faintly glimmering stars was too feeble to admit the supposition that their only design was as luminaries. stition interfered to supply the deficiency of knowledge, and made them the arbiters of human destiny, - the agents and the indices of the rise and fall of kingdoms, and of the fortunes and deaths of individuals. Thus men were gradually led from their allegiance to the one God, to worship the whole host of heaven. And even upon that chosen nation, among whom the knowledge of the Supreme Creator was preserved by revealed religion, this same polytheism intruded itself in the form of astrology. We discern traces of it in the song of Deborah and Barak: " The stars in their courses fought against Sisera." And doubtless the observers of times, mentioned frequently in the Old Testament in connexion with wizards and sorcerers, were simply astrologers. In Christian countries, though the Supreme Divinity has always been nominally recognised, the stars were for many centuries believed to wield a kind of omnipotence over the destinies of nations and individuals; and those who were most intimately acquainted with astronomy, sought their knowledge of that science, either to learn their own fates, or to impose upon the credulity of others. promulgation of the Copernican system aimed a death-blow at astrology; but Copernicus himself was an astrologer. It was reserved for Galileo to expose the absurdity of a science which made worlds and systems immensely large and infinitely distant from our own, the humble servants of every timid, superstitious fool upon earth.

The discovery that the heavenly bodies were not, in the astrological sense, the arbiters of the fates of empires, made them so in another and far better sense. In other words, the downfall of astrology laid the foundation of practical astronomy, which, by becoming the handmaid of commerce and the arts, has become the source of national power and wealth. Galileo was eminently a practical man, and was

constantly striving to render his discoveries practically useful. Hardly had he discovered and named Jupiter's satellites, before he conceived the plan of employing their epochs in ascertaining terrestrial longitudes. The object of his inquiries was not to amaze, but to benefit his fellow-men. Probably to no other individual is science indebted for so many of its essential aids. The pendulum clock, the telescope, the microscope, and the thermometer (which, by the way, as he constructed it, was also a barometer) may all be traced to him as their inventor.

There is no point of view in which Galileo appears more truly great, than in his freedom from religious bigotry, and the boldness with which, amidst threats and anathemas, he perseveres in the pursuit of truth. The following extract from a letter addressed by him to Christina, Grand Duchess of Tuscany, gives his views as to the respective provinces of scripture and science, and is admirable not only as exhibiting principles far in advance of his own age, but as assuming all that the Christian philosopher of the present day would desire the bigot to concede.

"I am inclined to believe, that the intention of the sacred Scriptures is to give to mankind the information necessary for their salvation, and which, surpassing all human knowledge, can by no other means be accredited than by the mouth of the Holy Spirit. But I do not hold it necessary to believe, that the same God, who has endowed us with senses, with speech, and intellect, intended that we should neglect the use of these, and seek by other means for knowledge which they are sufficient to procure us; especially in a science like astronomy, of which so little notice is taken in the Scriptures, that none of the planets, except the sun and moon, and, once or twice only, Venus, under the name of Lucifer, are so much as named This therefore being granted, methinks that in the discussion of natural problems we ought not to begin at the authority of texts of Scripture, but at sensible experiments, and necessary demonstration; for, from the Divine Word, the sacred Scripture and Nature did both alike proceed, and I conceive that, concerning natural effects, that which either sensible experience sets before our eyes, or necessary demonstrations do prove unto us, ought not upon any account to be called into question, much less condemned, upon the testimony of scriptural texts, which may under their words couch senses seemingly contrary thereto.

"Again, to command the very professors of astronomy that they of themselves see to the confuting of their own observations and demonstrations, is to enjoin a thing beyond all possibility of doing; for it is not only to command them not to see that which they do see, and not to understand that which they do understand, but it is to order them to seek for and to find the contrary of that which they happen to meet with. I would entreat these wise and prudent fathers, that they would with all diligence consider the difference that is between opinionative and demonstrative doctrines; to the end that well weighing in their minds with what force necessary inferences urge us, they might the better assure themselves that it is not in the power of the professors of demonstrative sciences to change their opinions at pleasure, and adopt first one side and then another; and that there is a great difference between commanding a mathematician or a philosopher, and the disposing of a lawyer or a merchant; and that the demonstrated conclusions touching the things of nature and of the heavens cannot be changed with the same facility as the opinions are touching what is lawful or not in a contract, bargain, or bill of exchange. Therefore, first let these men apply themselves to examine the arguments of Copernicus and others, and leave the condemning of them as erroneous and heretical to whom it belongeth; yet let them not hope to find such rash and precipitous determinations in the wary and holy fathers, or in the absolute wisdom of Him who cannot err, as those into which they suffer themselves to be hurried by some particular affection or In these and such other positions, interest of their own. which are not directly articles of faith, certainly no man doubts but His Holiness hath always an absolute power of admitting or condemning them, but it is not in the power of any creature to make them to be true or false, otherwise than of their own nature and in fact they are." - pp. 143-145.

Galileo was indeed toward the close of his life induced to abjure the Copernican system of the universe as inconsistent with scripture. But there is too much reason to suppose that his recantation was extorted by the actual application of the torture. At any rate, in case he had refused obedience to the inquisitors, an ignominious death doubtless awaited him; and, though the title of martyr to science sounds well in poetry, in plain prose we would wish no one to seek the honor of martyrdom, unless in the cause of human liberty or of Christian truth. Whatever prompted this venerable philosopher to abjure his scientific creed, it is certain that his faith in it was never for a moment shaken.

"It is said that Galileo, as he rose from his knees, [after reading his abjuration of the earth's motion,] stamped on the ground, and whispered to one of his friends, E pur si muove, (It does move though.")—p. 190.

We close our notice of this memoir by recommending it to the perusal of any of our readers, who are interested in scientific history, or in the biography of truly great men. The highest praise that we can give the work, is to say, that it is worthy of its subject.

ART. III. — A new literal Translation of Longinus on the Sublime; for the Use of Schools, Colleges, and Universities; Illustrated with Notes, original and selected. By a Graduate of Trinity College, Dublin. New York. Charles S. Francis. 12mo. pp. 86.

We have no inclination to discuss the intricate question of the authorship of the treatise usually attributed to Dionysius Longinus. A writer in a late number of the "Edinburgh Review" has examined it with acuteness, learning, and good sense. Another question, and one of really greater importance, is that which involves the merit of the work itself. How far are the praises commonly lavished by enthusiastic scholars, on this treatise, fairly due to it? How much is to be deducted on the score of classical enthusiasm? How far are the principles involved in it, capable of present application, in the criticism of literary works?

Nothing is easier than to bestow epithets. The "golden little treatise" of Longinus, says Pearce, should be read and re-read. To this we have no objection, except that the epithet conveys no definite idea. Why golden? Is it so much superior to all other works? This kind of applause really amounts to nothing. It imposes on the mind of the reader the idea that something, he cannot tell exactly what, of unspeakable value lies hid, like gold in the mine, in this little treatise. It should be borne in mind, however, that the work has come down to us in an imperfect state, and we cannot therefore form a fair judgment of its general merits as a whole. It is an interesting work. It is the work of an amiable and accomplished man. Longinus had read with taste and enthusiasm, the great authors of Greece.

He felt their surpassing merits, and awarded them liberal praise. The genius of the poet, the power of the orator, found in him a soul capable of appreciating them, and ready to honor them. He bowed before the majesty of the "midday sun" in the Iliad, and of its setting glory in the Odyssey; and he listened reverently to the thunders of Demosthenes. No half-way admiration was his; what he felt with rapture, he rapturously expressed. No balancing of merits and demerits, no cautions and critical dissecting of literary claims, no vaunting of analytical acumen, are to be found in his work. All is noble, generous, enthusiastic. We cannot read without admiring and loving him. He is the critic of the heart, rather than the head, of the imagination, rather than the judgment.

From these general characteristics it might be inferred that Longinus has but little to do with principles. Such is in fact the case. He is rather a descriptive than an analytical critic. He writes more from the emotions excited in his own bosom. than from the general conclusions of a rigid philosophy. this respect Aristotle is incomparably his superior. Indeed who has rivalled the inimitable clearness, and distinctness, the close reasoning, the subtle distinction, the logical inference, of that most masterly and philosophical critic? Longinus rarely attempts to ascend to the first principles of the poetic art, and when he does so, his success is not remarkable. But he loves to describe; to set forth the merits of the great authors of antiquity, with a spirit and fire, something akin to their own all-glorious genius. In doing this, he kindles in his reader a corresponding enthusiasm. You cannot read his beautiful tribute to Demosthenes in Section XVI. without longing to turn to the pages of the great orator himself. Hence the true value of Longinus. He is not didactic and philosophical, but interesting and poetical. He excites more ardor than Aristotle, and here lies the secret of his power. By reading his work, we are made to feel the genius of the poet; by reading Aristotle, we are made to see it; and readers will prefer the one or the other according as they prefer to feel or to see. The greater number, however, doubtless choose the former.

With all its merits, the treatise has some faults, and pretty obvious ones. The language is not always pure, at least as compared with the writers of the best age of Athenian literature. The style is not always clear, and this

would have been a capital defect, in the eye of an Athenian critic; it is deficient in perspicuity, first, from a want of deep and clear thinking, and, secondly, from a complicated and elaborate arrangement. His bursts of eloquence are sometimes ill-judged, and fall from the ὑψὸς pretty near to the His numerous parentheses, and his perpetually recurring og av elnot ug, and el régot, provoke our patience, and are often laughably out of place. He rises sometimes into that vague and tumid affectation of sublimity which surely indicates the decline of genius and taste. From the want of clear thinking arises the particular want of orderly distribution of the several parts of his subject. He takes up a topic, his imagination leads him far out of the track, and both author and reader find it pretty difficult to get back again. Such are some of this critic's defects, from which several deductions ought to be made by reason of the age in which he lived, and the mutilated state of his text. But he is hardly entitled to the homage which has been so lavishly bestowed on him. In the analysis of principles, the comprehension of human nature, on which all art is founded, the application of profound philosophy to criticism, the treatise of Longinus is by no means equal to the works of many modern writers, and particularly to the eloquent lectures of Schlegel. But it is an interesting and lively picture of the feelings of an accomplished man, on some of the most interesting literary topics. It is full of good thought, and sound morality; it is overflowing with kindliness and sympathy. We respect the author's character, admire his genius, and love his enthusiasm.

We would recommend the perusal of Longinus, either in the original, or in a translation, to every man of cultivated taste. Not that his precepts are capable of extended, or very useful application to literary criticism at the present day, for they are too vague and superficial to admit the possibility of such an application. But the spirit of the book cannot be sufficiently inculcated, for it is generous, sympa-

thetic, and manly.

The present translation is faithful in a very remarkable degree to the original, and yet we doubt its power of raising much interest in any class of readers except those who can read the original. It has an appearance of baldness, which the original is entirely free from; it is sometimes hardly

intelligible, from extreme accuracy. We think a translation, which shall follow a medium between this and the paraphrastic looseness of the great mass of versions, would meet with a ready and popular circulation. In justice to the translator, we are bound to say that his work bears marks of scholarlike labor, close and accurate research, and good judgment. His notes are few and brief, but well-selected and satisfactory. We recommend the work, though it does not altogether suit our own individual taste, to the cordial acceptance of the lovers of liberal learning. We subjoin, as a specimen of the author's manner and the translator's skill, the following extract.

"It is not proper, in this place, my dear friend, to omit one of my observations, [it shall be a very brief one,] that figures somehow naturally, both assist sublimity, and are, in turn, assisted by it. Where and how, I shall tell you. It is peculiarly suspicious to treat-in-an-artful-manner of all things by figures: and it brings with it, the supposition of deceit, treachery, and fraud: more especially when we are pleading before an absolute judge, (but most of all, before tyrants, kings, and leaders with unlimited authority,) for he is immediately indignant if, like a silly child, he is baffled, by the trifling figures of an artful orator; and considering the deception, as an insult offered to himself, he sometimes becomes quite furious, and even though he should control his anger, yet he entirely opposes himself to the conviction of your arguments; wherefore a figure seems best, when the fact of its being a figure, is concealed. Sublimity and pathos therefore constitute a great remedy and relief against the suspicion, attendant on figure-making; and the art of adroitly-applying-them, being, in a manner, covered over with beauties and sublimity, is altogether concealed, and escapes all suspicion; the former instance is a sufficient example, 'By those at Marathon;' for how did the orator here conceal the figure? Evidently by its very lustre. For I may nearly say, as weak lights are obscured, when surrounded by the dazzling rays of the sun: thus sublimity poured round on every side, overshadows the artifices of rhetoric. Something, not very unlike this, perhaps, happens in painting; for though the light and shade of colors lie near each other, on the same ground, yet the light first strikes the eye, and not only appears projecting, but much nearer. Thus too, in writings, the sub-lime and pathetic being nearer our souls, on account of some natural connexion, and on account of their superior splendor, are always more conspicuous, than figures, conceal their art, and keep them, as it were, veiled from our view."- pp. 32, 33.

ART. IV. — On the Economy of Machinery and Manufactures. By Charles Babbage Esq., A. M., Lucasian Professor of Mathematics to the University of Cambridge, England, and Member of several Academies. Philadelphia, Carey & Lea. 1832. pp. 282.

THE object of the author, as stated in his Introduction, is "to point out the effects and advantages which arise from the use of tools and machines; - to endeavour to classify their modes of action; — and to trace both the causes and the consequences of applying machinery to supersede the skill and power of the human arm." He divides the work into two sections, the first containing "a view of the mechanical part of the subject," with "some remarks on the general sources whence the advantages of machinery are derived," and "suggestions for the assistance of those who propose visiting manufactories." The second section contains "a discussion of many of the questions which relate to the political economy of the subject," with "an explanation of the difference between making and manufacturing," and remarks on the "future prospects of manufactures

as arising from the application of science."

Before, however, proceeding to the discussion and examination of any particular subject, Mr. Babbage makes a remark, the truth of which will be considered questionable by the advocates of the advantages of a home market. speaking of the superior facility of production in manufactures, occasioned by the concentration of skill and industry in any particular nation, he says, "that it has not been beneficial to the country alone in which it is concentrated. but its benefits have been extended to distant kingdoms, by supplying them with manufactured goods more cheaply than they could be produced among themselves." Now the effect of such a cheap supply must obviously be, to drive the manufacturers of these distant countries out of their own market, and if they are capable of supplying it, though perhaps at a higher price, with similar fabrics, many will not doubt, that in this case, unless the disproportion of price be enormously great, and unless also new and profitable modes of industry can be found for the disbanded workmen, more injury must result to these countries from the loss of the home market and of the profits of the labor of their own subjects, than will be compensated for by a superior

cheapness in the goods received from abroad.

In making the above remark we think that we can clearly see, that the author's perceptions are influenced by his own situation as one of a great manufacturing nation, supplying largely the markets of the world, and drawing from them in return few manufactured articles of consequence. skill and science could be so much concentrated in France or America, as to enable the manufacturers of either of these countries to undersell the manufacturers of Great Britain, in any important and extensive branches of production, in the markets of Great Britain itself, and thus drive them from the market, we cannot but doubt whether Mr. Babbage would think such a concentration of skill and science and its results beneficial to Great Britain. cases such a circumstance as he has stated may be beneficial, but these cases are particular, while his rule is general; and in fact such cases may rather be deemed exceptions to the true general rule, than exemplifications of it. not but think that Mr. Babbage has made a blunder on the threshold of his undertaking - rather an unlucky omen for the confidence we may be disposed to put in the perspicacity and correctness of his views.

The advantages arising from the use of machinery and manufactures are ascribed to three principal sources; "The addition which they make to human power. - The economy they produce of human time. - The conversion of substances apparently common and worthless into valuable pro-After illustrating these by a few pages of remark and instances, the author proceeds to the consideration of particular mechanical principles and advantageous results of their application under the following heads, viz., Accumulating Power; Regulating power; Increase and Diminution of Velocity; Extending the Time of Action of Forces: Saving Time in natural Operations; Exerting forces too great for human Power, and executing Operations too delicate for human Touch; Registering Operations; Economy of the Materials employed; Identity of the Work when of the same Kind, and its Accuracy when of different Kinds; Copying; concluding with the Method of observing Manufactories. Under these heads the author gives much information of various kinds, both of processes and principles, yet in rather a general way; too much so on the whole we are inclined to think, since his descriptions and explanations often have not enough of particularity to convey any definite ideas of the subject to a person altogether unacquainted with the mechanical contrivances forming the object of remark, and impart little or nothing to one already possessing even a moderate acquaintance with them. In fact several of these contrivances are rather merely pointed out as producing certain effects, than explained as to the principles upon which, or the manner in which they act to produce them; thus for instance, p. 33. "Another very beautiful contrivance for regulating the number of strokes made by a steam engine, is used in Cornwall; it is called the cataract, and depends upon the time required to fill a vessel plunged in water; the opening of the valve through which the fluid is admitted being adjustable at the will of the engine man." We certainly get no very precise idea of what the cataract is, from the mention of it. All his instances we are happy to say are not equally barren, though many are, and we apprehend that few will read this portion of the book with much pleasure or profit, without a considerable general acquaintance with machinery and with various branches of natural philosophy. Under the head of Copying, we are presented with a classification of very many processes in the arts, apparently very dissimilar, yet having the analogy of being performed by the guidance of some original pattern or mould. The idea of this classification is ingenious and the classification a good one, though we were at first rather surprised at seeing arranged under it a head like this, "Lace made by Caterpillars;" as the caterpillars are however only in part the artificers, though indeed the most essential ones, and as they literally copy from designs made by the human hand, the author could not perhaps have introduced it more fitly under any other head, if he wished to mention it; though after all it seems a singular thing to make its appearance among manufactures.

The author appears to hessitate in pointing out the distinction between a tool and a machine, as being a thing not to be done very precisely; he contents himself with speaking of a tool as being "more simple than a machine, and being generally moved with the hand, while a machine is frequently moved by animal or steam power." By animal power we suppose he means that of beasts; yet ploughs, harrows, &c. are tools, though moved by such power, and a straw cutter, though moved by the hand, is a machine. We have seen many very ingenious and complicated machines moved by the hand. The distinction seems to us to consist mainly in the direct, or transmitted and modified application of the moving force, though in part depending on the nature of the force. It is difficult to express it with conciseness and exactness; but we think we should say, that a tool is an instrument performing its work by the direct application of human or animal power to the instrument, moving it as a whole; that a machine is an instrument performing its work by power applied to some part as a prime mover, and thence transmitted, more or less modified, through other parts, to those by which the work is more immediately performed; or if applied directly to the performing part, yet guided, modified, or limited by some parts to which it is applied only indirectly, or not at all. distinction we are sensible is far from being complete, yet it appears to us to contain what is essential as far as it can be embraced within such narrow limits.

The chapter on the "Method of observing Manufactories" is well worth the attention of those who visit them

with a view of obtaining accurate information.

In the second section of the work, after stating the difference between making and manufacturing, which he makes to consist in the extent to which the business of producing any article is carried on in any one establishment, or in its being produced by many hands or by comparatively few; the author proceeds to the consideration of price. Having given the usual principles upon which price is said to depend at any one period, and upon an average of a considerable time, he treats of the effects produced upon the action of these principles by what he considers disturbing forces. The first of these he calls verification, that is, the difficulty of ascertaining the true quality of an article, where this is variable, affording occasions for fraud on the part of the seller, or injurious mistakes on the part of the buyer. effect of this principle is to enhance the price of such an article in the hands of those dealers, whose combined skill and honesty afford a guaranty to buyers as to the real quality of the article. Several amusing and interesting illustrations are given in support of this position. The second of these disturbing forces is the durability of articles, according to the greater or less degree of which, they need to be more or less quickly replaced, and of course afford a more or less constant or increasing demand. The effects of this are pretty obvious, and are clearly stated in a short space. The consideration of price is concluded by a chapter on "Price as measured by Money," showing by tables the variations that have taken place in the price of similar articles within a series of years, and pointing out the general principles by which these variations are produced. Among them we do not find enumerated the effects of foreign competition either in the home market or in the market of the world. bly the author considered this as indirectly comprehended under some of his other heads, as it indeed seems to be in part, yet it appears to us to have some effects sufficiently peculiar to make it deserving of a particular mention.

The subject of manufactures and manufactories is then more directly resumed according to the particular view belonging to this section, and is discussed under the following heads, viz. - Raw Materials - Division of Labor - Division of Mental Labor — Cost of each Process in a Manufactory - Causes and Consequences of large Factories -Position of large Factories - Inquiries previous to commencing any Manufactory - On contriving Machinery -Proper Circumstances for the Application of Machinery -Duration of Machinery - Combination among Masters or Workmen - Combination of Masters against the Public -Effects of Taxes and legal Restrictions upon Manufactures - Exportation of Machinery - ending with the chapter upon the future Prospects of Manufactures. It is impossible for us to enter into any examination of many of these numerous heads, and we shall content ourselves with a few passing remarks upon two or three of them.

It is doubtless well known to many persons in this country, that Mr. Babbage has been for some years employed upon the construction of a machine for the performance of Mathematical calculations, and indeed to his researches into the principles of Machinery, made with a view to advancing his progress in his own invention, we are indebted for the materials and formation of the work before us. To this

thing he adverts in the chapter on the Division of Mental Labor, showing by the example of M. Prony, the French Mathematician, that the principle of division of labor is applicable to mathematical calculations for such purposes as the construction of tables, and supporting the idea, that the simpler forms of these calculations may be performed by means of machinery. To establish this and give some idea of the process, he introduces a table of Square Numbers, as far as to the square of 7, with two columns of differences, and then shows how these might be successively denoted by the number of strokes upon the bells of three clocks, produced and varied within certain limits, at the pleasure of the operators. The plan seems feasible as explained in general terms, but what difficulties the contriver will have to encounter in bringing his machine into actual operation, especially with numbers of considerable magnitude, we cannot undertake to say; but they certainly must be considerable, and, if not absolutely insurmountable, will not be easily surmounted. We fear that the complicated nature of the machine, the expense of its construction, and the difficulty of management and repairing, will be such, that, however curious it may be as a work of skill and inventive genius, its practical utility will be small. How far the author has proceeded in his invention he does not mention. but speaks as if he fully anticipated its completion.

Under the heads of Costs of Processes, and Combinations against the Public, we are presented with some curious and interesting details concerning the cost of books in England. and the various sources whence the cost accrues, the result of which seems to be, that literature is very heavily taxed in the first place by Government, and subsequently by the publishers and booksellers; and that of all the excess of the selling price above the actual cost of materials and labor in printing and advertising, more in the whole than 60 per cent., the author, who, one would think, is the most important agent in the production and the most deserving of reward, receives a much less portion than the bookseller, and not twice as much as the government. This truly affords but poor encouragement to authors, and readily explains their generally lean condition compared with the thriving class of booksellers. How the proportions stand in this country we do not exactly know; but we believe that

authors fare little better on the whole, though government may not be altogether so much benefited in a pecuniary

In the concluding chapter, in speaking of the future prospects of manufactures, the author betrays, in the range which he suffers his imagination to take, somewhat more of the poet than we had hitherto any idea belonged to his character, though we are not altogether of those, who think science and poetry irreconcilable; yet his suggestions concerning the possible future staple commodity of Iceland and other volcanic countries, seem to us to savor almost too much of the purely imaginative, not to say of the grotesque, to hold a place in a sober book of science.

Under the other heads of this section which we have mentioned in order, are to be found good statements and illustrations of many valuable principles, and a great mass of information, for the most part somewhat general and in many instances presupposing on the part of the reader considerable familiarity with politico-economical science, a circumstance which conjointly with the same character belonging to the first section, as it regards the more peculiar subject of that part of the work, must we conceive render the work one of much less essential utility than it might have been with more amplitude of detail. To those to whose capacity and knowledge the book is suited, we think it will be acceptable; and as a whole it appears to us not unworthy of the talents and acquirements of the author, though some points we think will be controverted by some

ART. V. — The Lives of Donne, Wotton, Hooker, Herbert, and Sanderson. By IZAAK WALTON. With some Account of the Author and his Writings. 2 Vols. 16mo. Boston: Hilliard, Gray, & Co. pp. 224, and 336.

of the contending sects of politico-economists.

Nor the least engaging part of these volumes is Zouch's Life of Walton, together with such selections from "Sir John Hawkins's Life of Walton, prefixed to the 'Complete Angler,' as treat on matters not touched upon by Zouch." The life of Walton, however, is not rendered interesting by affording an eventful history of an individual, but from the

personal character and the personal circumstances of him who is commemorated; quiet as was his character, and free from every thing splendid and dazzling as were those circumstan-He appears to have had only a common education, and could, at no period of his long life, be properly called a learned man; and yet he was the friend and companion both of the learned and noble. The first that we hear of him is as The dimensions of a shopkeeper in Cornhill, London. his shop are said to have been seven feet and a half in length, and five feet in width. How long he was buried here, in a space not much exceeding that of a large coffin, except in height, it does not appear. But in 1624, it has been ascertained, by means of an old deed, that he occupied part of a shop and tenement in Fleet Street, and "followed the trade of a linen-draper."

He was not married till near the fortieth year of his age, if the following account given by Hawkins be correct.

"I conjecture that about 1632 he married; for in that year I find him living in a house in Chancery Lane, and described by the occupation of a sempster or milliner. The former of these might be his own proper trade; and the latter, as being a feminine occupation, might probably be carried on by his wife. . . Walton seems to have been as happy in the married state, as the society and friendship of a prudent and pious woman of great endowments could make him." pp. lxi, lxii.

About 1643, he left London, being then fifty years old; and he seems no longer to have been occupied as a tradesman, but to have retired rich in the best senses of the word; rich in an unspotted character, rich in mental resources, rich in abundant means for supplying very few wants. His favorite recreation while he lived in London was angling; but it was not till ten years after he left the city, that he published his "Complete Angler," a work, (to adopt Hawkins's description, in terms not much if at all exaggerated,) "which, whether we consider the elegant simplicity of the style, the ease and unaffected humor of the dialogue, the lovely scenes which it delineates, the enchanting pastoral poetry which it contains, or the fine morality it so sweetly inculcates, has hardly its fellow in any of the modern languages." p. lxiii.

The "Complete Angler" was not however the first fruits of his literary industry. Thirteen years before it appeared.

consequently three years before he left London, his life of Donne was published. "It was," says Zouch, "originally appended to LXXX Sermons preached by that reverend and learned divine, John Donne, Doctor in Divinity, late Dean of the Cathedral Church of St. Paul's, London, 1640." p. xv. In successive editions this Life was revised and enlarged. Donne, who has been principally known and regarded as a poet, and the father of that affected school in which Cowley stood most conspicuous, to the members of which Dr. Johnson applied the distinctive appellation metaphysical, is commemorated by Walton chiefly as a divine, as a solemn and affecting preacher, to whom his biographer had attentively listened, and as an humble, devoted minister of the gospel.

After Walton left London he retired to a small estate in Staffordshire. There he enjoyed a peaceful retreat, keeping aloof from the civil broils of the latter years of the reign of Charles the First; sometimes however expressing his troubles about the disturbed state of ecclesiastical affairs; visited occasionally by distinguished friends and prelates; and resorting in turn to their houses, at which he was received with unfeigned regard. It was about the time he took possession of his chosen retreat as a quiet and loyal subject, that "the Covenanters came back into England, marching gloriously with the Covenant on their pikes and in their hats, with this motto: - 'For the Crown and Covenant of both kingdoms.' " Walton was a consistent and unwavering friend and supporter of the established Church, and maintained an intimate acquaintance and friendship with several of its highest and purest dignitaries. He speaks of suffering in its cause, and gives some powerful reasons for his hostility to the Covenanters.

"When I look back," he says, "upon the ruin of families, the bloodshed, the decay of common honesty, and how the former piety and plain dealing of this now sinful nation is turned into cruelty and cunning; when I consider this, I praise God that he prevented me from being of that party, which helped to bring in this Covenant, and those sad confusions that have followed it." p. xiii.

The charm of Walton's life, and the secret of those friendships which he formed with men of rank and distinction, are explained by the excellences of his character, by the qualities of his head and heart. If his erudition was inconsiderable, his mind was well-balanced and well-informed. was so perfect and so endearing, as to call forth the most kind and cordial epithets in the forms of address used by his correspondents; and his sound understanding, his downright honesty, and unaffected simplicity, always secured a hearty welcome to "Good Mr. Walton." His familiar acquaintance with eminent men afforded him opportunities for acquiring a knowledge of the history and peculiarities of his contemporaries; and it appears that he was sometimes applied to for information of this kind. In answer to certain inquiries respecting Ben Jonson, he says, "I only knew Ben Jonson; but my Lord of Winton knew him very well." After some items of his earlier history, he adds; - "Then Ben began to set up for himself in the trade by which he got his subsistence and fame, of which I need not give any account. He got in time to have a hundred pounds a year from the king, also a pension from the city, and the like from many of the nobility and some of the gentry, which was well paid, for love or fear of his railing in verse or prose, or both." pp. xxxvii, xxxviii.

He speaks also of a Mr. Warner, in answer to certain interrogatories; mentions the part of the city in which he had long resided, and adds; "My Lord of Winchester tells me, he knew him, and that he said, he first found out the circulation of the blood, and discovered it to Dr. Harvey, (who said that it was he himself that found it,) for which he is so memorably famous." Walton gives no opinion in the case, and says nothing of Warner's character, except that "he was harmless and quiet." We have never elsewhere seen his name mentioned among those for whom the discovery of

the circulation of the blood is claimed.

Next to the life of Donne, in the order of the biographies, comes that of Wotton. This appeared originally with the "Reliquiæ Wottonianæ," edited by Walton in 1651. Sir Henry Wotton was a man of learning and talents, of great address, and of piety mingled with some grains of superstition. He was a travelled gentleman, and became an intimate companion of James the First, and one of his diplomatic agents. He was also something of a humorist, fond too of innocent adventures, and not without some personal experience in the same. His indulgence of his humor occasioned

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him, in one instance, no slight embarrassment. The affair to which we allude is thus described by Walton.

"At his first going ambassador into Italy, as he passed through Germany, he stayed some days at Augusta, where having been, in his former travels, well known by many of the best note for learning and ingeniousness (those that are esteemed the virtuosi of that nation), with whom he, passing an evening in merriments, was requested by Christopher Flecamore to write some sentence in his Albo, (a book of white paper which the German gentry usually carry about them for that purpose); and Sir Henry Wotton, consenting to the motion, took an occasion, from some accidental discourse of the present company, to write a pleasant definition of an ambassador, in these very words:

"'Legatus est vir bonus peregrè missus ad mentiendum reipublicæ causa.'

"Which Sir Henry Wotton could have been content should have been thus Englished:

"'An ambassador is an honest man, sent to lie abroad for the good of his country.'

"But the word for lie being the hinge upon which the conceit was to turn, was not so expressed in Latin, as would admit (in the hands of an enemy especially) so fair a construction as Sir Henry thought in English. Yet as it was, it slept quietly among other sentences in this Albo, almost eight years, till by accident it fell into the hands of Jasper Scioppius, a Romanist, a man of a restless spirit and a malicious pen; who, with books against king James, prints this as a principle of that religion professed by the king and his ambassador Sir Henry Wotton, then at Venice; and in Venice it was presently after written in several glass-windows, and spitefully declared to be Sir Henry Wotton's.

"This coming to the knowledge of king James, he apprehended it to be such an oversight, such a weakness, or worse, in Sir Henry Wotton, as caused the king to express much wrath against him; and this caused Sir Henry Wotton to write two Apologies, one to Velserus (one of the chiefs of Augusta,) in the universal language, which he caused to be printed and given and scattered in the most remarkable places both of Germany and Italy, as an antidote against the venomous books of Scioppius; and another Apology to king James; which were both so ingenious, so clear, and so choicely eloquent, that his majesty (who was a pure judge of it) could not forbear,

at the receipt thereof, to declare publicly, that "Sir Henry Wotton had commuted sufficiently for a greater offence."

In 1662 "The Life of Mr. Richard Hooker" appeared. Walton enjoyed some peculiar advantages for writing the life of this great and learned man, particularly by means of his intimate acquaintance with persons who were partly educated by Hooker, and also with several distinguished men by whom he was thoroughly known. Hooker was a good as well as a great man; and though he was a strenuous defender of "Ecclesiastical Polity," in his work thus entitled, and in principles, yet his spirit was liberal and his charity remarkably comprehensive, for the age in which he lived. Towards the close of the sixteenth century a most violent temper was manifested on the part of some of the English ecclesiastics against the Papists. "There was sprung up," says Walton, "a new generation of restless men, that by company and clamors became possessed of a faith which which they ought to have kept to themselves, but could not; men that were become positive in asserting, 'that a Papist cannot be saved." No grave remonstrances against these persons and their writings produced any effect; but the authors who were safe from the pulpit and the throne, were touched and shamed by ridicule. "Tom Nash," says Walton, "appeared against them all, who was a man of a sharp wit, and the master of a scoffing, satirical, merry pen, which he employed to discover the absurdities of those blind, malicious, senseless pamphlets, and sermons as senseless as they; Nash's answers being like his books, which bore these titles, 'An Almond for a Parrot;' 'A Fig for my Godson;' 'Come crack me this Nut,' and the like; so that his merry wit made such a discovery of their absurdities. as (which is strange) he put a greater stop to these malicious pamphlets than a much wiser man had been able." Vol. II. p. 64.

Walter Travers, who bore no good will to Hooker, in consequence of unsuccessful rivalry, led him into a controversy with himself concerning the Papists, particularly on the merit of good works, and justification thereby, as maintained by the Papists. "Shall Man," says Hooker, "be so bold as to write on their graves, 'Such men are damned; there is for

them no salvation."

"Give me a pope or a cardinal, whom great afflictions have made to know himself, whose heart God hath touched with true sorrow for all his sins, and filled with a love of Christ and his gospel; whose eyes are willingly open to see the truth, and his mouth ready to renounce all error, this one opinion of merit excepted, which he thinketh God will require at his hands; and because he wanteth, trembleth, and is discouraged, and yet can say, "Lord, cleanse me from all my secret sins!" shall I think, because of this, or a like error, such men touch not so much as the hem of Christ's garment? If they do, wherefore should I doubt, but that virtue may proceed from Christ to save them? No, I will not be afraid to say to such a one, "You err in your opinion, but be of good comfort; you have to do with a merciful God, who will make the best of that little which you hold well, and not with a captious sophister, who gathered the worst out of every thing in which you are mistaken." Vol. II. p. 72.

In the conclusion of his eloquent discussion, Hooker says, "Surely I must confess, that if it be an error to think that God may be merciful to save men, even when they err, my greatest comfort is my error: were it not for the love I bear to this error, I would never wish to speak or to live." pp. 73. 74.

Walton's "Life of Mr. George Herbert" was published in 1670, and the last of his biographical works, "The Life of Dr. Robert Sanderson," was published in 1678, the author being then eighty five years of age. Sanderson was a very learned man, devout, humble, and diffident to a fault. As a proof of this we may mention his habit of reading his excellent Sermons in the pulpit, in the most dull and tame manner, while he would never trust to his memory which was remarkable, or to any felicitous suggestion of the moment, to give animation to his preaching. The following account furnishes evidence of the power of memory, seldom equalled:

"His memory was so matchless and firm, as it was only overcome by his bashfulness: for he alone, or to a friend, could repeat all the Odes of Horace, all Tully's Offices, and much of Juvenal and Persius, without book: and would say, 'the repetition of one of the Odes of Horace to himself (which he did often) was to him such music, as a lesson on the viol was to others, when they played it voluntarily to themselves or friends.'" p. 295.

The Life of Sanderson we should judge likely to be on the whole, a greater favorite with most readers, than that of any other of the excellent men commemorated by Walton. "My friendship with him" says his biographer, "was begun almost forty years past, when I was as far from a thought, as a desire to outlive him; and farther from an intention to write his Life." But this long friendship peculiarly fitted him for the task, and, combined with a share of incidents, and of the troubles of the times in which Sanderson was concerned, enabled the author to impart great interest to the subject.

Mr. Young, the editor of the work before us, is doubtless correct in saying that "these delightful pieces of biography are very little known in this country." They certainly deserve to be well known and extensively read; for besides the amount of knowledge which they furnish concerning persons and things at an eventful period of English history, they afford highly instructive lessons for the forming of a virtuous,

amiable, and steadfast character.

ART. VI.—1. A New Greek and English Lexicon; principally on the Plan of the Greek and German Lexicon of Schneider; the Words Alphabetically Arranged; distinguishing such as are Poetical, of Dialectic Variety, or Peculiar to certain Writers, and Classes of Writers; with Examples, literally translated, selected from the Classical Writers. By James Donnegan, M. D. First American, from the Second London Edition, Revised and Enlarged, by R. B. Patton. Boston: Hilliard, Gray, &. Co. 1832. Royal 8vo. pp. 1432.

2. A New Greek and English Lexicon; principally on the Plan of the Greek and German Lexicon of Schneider, the Words Alphabetically Arranged; distinguishing such as are Poetical, of Dialectic Variety, or Peculiar to Certain Writers and Classes of Writers; with Examples, literally translated, from the Classic Writers. By James Donnegan, M. D. Arranged from the last London Edition, by J. M. Cairns, A. M. Philadelphia: Carey & Lea. 1832. 12mo.

THE merits of Schneider's Greek and German Lexicon have been well known in our country, for several years past.

Its vocabulary is sufficiently copious for the general reader of classical Greek, and the definitions for the most part are admirable for their clearness, and closeness to the original. The German language is peculiarly well adapted to the wants of the Lexicographer. Its copiousness and flexibility are inferior only to the Greek; its freedom in compounding new terms out of the abundant store of its primitives, enables it to express much more nearly the various and delicate shades of meaning in the Greek compounds, than is within the capability of any other modern tongue. Schneider is fully aware of all this, and his Lexicon is among the best of the numerous good Lexicons, which his learned countrymen have compiled. But it is not to be expected that an English version or paraphrase should attain to the excellences of the original; still much may be done, in our good old English speech, towards conveying an accurate idea of the Greek: much more, certainly, than Hederic and Schrevelius accomplished with their misty Latinity. It was, accordingly, an occasion of sincere rejoicing when Mr. Pickering's Greek and English Lexicon first saw the light, and it is not too much to say, that that accomplished scholar gave a more vigorous impulse to Grecian studies, than they have ever received in our country before. Since that auspicious beginning the career of Greek and English Lexicographers has been rapid and successful. The work placed first at the head of this article, is the latest effort with which we are acquainted, to improve the state of classical learning among us.

The first English edition of Dr. Donnegan's work was imperfect in several respects. "Many words," as the American editor remarks, "were admitted into it, which served only to swell its size, without adding to its practical value, — words, which might with propriety be looked for in a Thesaurus alone. On the other hand, a goodly number of words met with in Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Pindar, Aristophanes, Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, and other writers of less note, were sought for in vain." The editor then cites a sufficient number of examples to substantiate his statement, showing clearly enough that the practical value of the work would be essentially increased by revision and alteration. With this view the task of preparing a new edition was undertaken. Numerous words, of doubtful authority, and found only in Hesychius Suidas, and the Glossaries, have

been omitted; and many others, supplied by the editor's private reading or in the course of his labors as an instructer, have been inserted in their place. The correctness of the principle on which these changes have been made, must at once be obvious, and it received a singular confirmation from the fact that during the preparatory labor of this American edition, a second English edition made its appearance, revised and improved on almost precisely the same plan. Mr. Patton speedily availed himself of whatever aid this new edition afforded, and has presented us an edition in some

respects better still.

The editorial labor of this work could not have fallen into better hands. Mr. Patton is among the most distinguished classical scholars in our country, and he has brought to his task a mind cultivated by extensive and profound studies, and sharpened by the critical habits of a classical teacher. He has done his duty with extreme fidelity, and merits the gratitude of instructers and students. The narrow limits, to which we are compelled to confine our remarks, make it impossible to enter into a detailed exposition of the claims of this work, on the confidence of the public. To review a Lexicon is as difficult as to take the first bite of a large apple. It is a work, as was sagely said of Johnson's Dictionary, containing a good deal of information on many sub-But if we may be allowed to speak from some experience in consulting Mr. Patton's edition of Donnegan, we should say that no reasonable expectations can be disap-So far as we have examined it we have found but one error, and that of no great consequence, being the substitution of one vowel for another, in a single word. book we believe to be printed with exceeding correctness. The quantity of doubtful syllables is carefully marked, and the accents are in general distinct. The definitions are clear and close, and the primitive and derivative meanings arranged with a due regard to philosophical accuracy. no doubt the work will erelong be in universal demand, and that a new edition will be speedily called for. We cordially commend it to students, who wish to acquire a liberal knowledge of the literature of the classical ages of Greece, and to those gentlemen who are desirous in the intervals of business, or in literary retirement, of restoring the half-forgotten associations of their early pursuits.

The work, which stands second, is a Philadelphia print. with the same title, except that it is said to be "arranged from the last London edition." There is a little unfairness in the getting up of this book, for which the public have a right to call the editor and his publishers to an account. It has, as we remarked, substantially the same titlepage as Dr. Donnegan's and Mr. Patton's editions, but is in fact a very different book, and of no critical value whatever. There is nothing in the title to indicate to the purchaser, that he is buying, not Dr. Donnegan's Lexicon, but an abridgment of it, and a poor one too. "Arranged" surely does not mean "abridged," according to ordinary English usage, and it is an imposition on the public, to call an abridgment an "arrangement." We know not for whose advantage this "arrangement" has been made, — certainly not for the stu-dent of Greek. True, the Preface mentions that the work is an abridgement, and the purchaser, when he sits down to examine his book with a little more care than was convenient at the counter, may have the satisfaction of finding out the difference between the two flags which the piratical-looking craft sails under. He will also find that the title speaks of "examples literally translated from the classical writers," omitting the word selected in Patton's and Donnegan's, while the Preface says that the meanings of words are "occasionally illustrated by examples from the classics." he looks a little farther, he will find that these occasions are "like angel visits," of very rare occurrence. Besides, no breathing but the aspirate is used, and no accent but the cir-Now this is slovenly and unscholarlike. away the last shadow of a claim upon the confidence of the student or the public. The work is, in short, deceptive and useless. We regret to see such sham attempts to advance the cause of classical learning, with an eye, perhaps, to something not quite so worthy of public approbation, and we put in our veto to an "arrangement," which has nothing to recommend it but its duplicity.

ART. VII. — An Address delivered at the Dedication of Dane Law College in Harvard University, October 23, 1832. By Josiah Quincy, LL. D., President of the University. Cambridge. E. W. Metcalf & Co. 8vo. pp. 27.

This Address is written with great vigor both of style and thought, possessing the same marked character as the other productions of the Author. It was well suited to the occasion that called it forth. After paying a high tribute of respect to Mr. Dane, richly deserved indeed, and laboriously earned, the President proceeds "to speak of the science of the law in respect of its connexion with Harvard University; to reflect on the proportion which the present foundations in this branch bear to the importance of the objects embraced by that science; and on the dependence of our civil rights and immuni-

ties upon it, for their support and preservation."

In pursuance of this design, and to show the reason why the common law was not early a branch of education in the Universities, he sketches succinctly, but with distinctness and ability, its history from a period "antecedent to the Norman Conquest," down to the last century. During all this time, as he remarks, in substance, the law, from various causes. consisted of a confused mass of rules not easily reduced to a lucid order, nor governed by any fixed, immutable principles. It was an art, not a science, not jurisprudence. "Under the auspices of a University," where the Vinerian professorship was established, which gave rise to the Commentaries of Blackstone, the common law of England laid successful claim to the character, rank, and dignity of a science. To show the manner of studying law before the time of Blackstone, the President gives an abstract from Lord Chief Justice Reeves's directions to the student, which are sufficiently amusing. He then traces the commune vinculum of the sciences, and quotes Lord Bacon's saying, that "to disincorporate any particular science from general knowledge, is one great impediment to its advancement." So long as this separation continued, the law was confused and forbidding, but when it became a branch of university education, it became systematic and pleasing. An interesting and correct description is given of the usual mode of VOL. III. NO. I.

pursuing professional studies in the offices of practitioners in this country, a half a century ago, which applies substantially to that of the present day, and must in the nature of things be always nearly true. Towards the close of the Address, the great advantages derived from pursuing legal studies at the Law School in Cambridge connected with a flourishing University, are clearly pointed out and forcibly illustrated. A warm and highly wrought eulogium is bestowed on the character of the profession, and the leading importance of the profession itself to the well-being of society is urged and vindicated with the earnestness and zeal of one who has contemplated the subject in all its bearings.

Our principal object however in this article is to present to our readers a condensed view of the condition of the Law School at Cambridge, by which they may be able to form a

proper estimate of its great and growing advantages.

This school was established in 1817, under the immediate charge of Professor Stearns, a gentleman possessing a thorough and accurate knowledge of the common law, and of pleasing address in his intercourse with the students. This office he held till his resignation in 1829. But the school required, in order that it might become effective and permanent, and enter into successful competition with other similar institutions, pecuniary resources, which it had not previously There had been indeed a professorship on the foundation of the late Mr. Royall, which had been filled by the late Chief Justice Parker; but his lectures were intended chiefly for the undergraduates, as a part of the regular college instruction in the senior year, and were few in num-A new arrangement therefore became necessary to give efficiency to this department, and to place it on an equally favorable footing with the departments of theology and inedicine in the University. This end was accomplished through the munificence of Mr. Dane, the same gentleman who was alluded to by Mr. Hayne of South Carolina, in the celebrated debate on Foote's resolution, as one Nathan Dane, but well and most honorably known by all who pretend to a knowledge of the public men of our country, as the author of the "Ordinance for the Government of the Territory Northwest of the Ohio," which passed in Congress under the old confederation, in 1787; and to professional men, as the learned compiler of the "Abridgment of American Law," a perpetual monument of his industry, zeal, and legal erudition.

In June 1829, Mr. Dane presented to the University at Cambridge the sum of ten thousand dollars, the profits of his great work on American Law, for the establishment of a professorship in the University, embracing Natural, National, Commercial, Maritime, and Constitutional Law. In his letter to the President and Corporation announcing his donation, he stipulates that no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification for this professorship; nor shall the professor be obliged to reside at Cambridge; the last provision being made under the wise belief, "that the best professors will generally be found among judges, and lawyers eminent in practice, in other places, conveniently situated, and who while professors may continue their offices and practice generally." The greatest advantages to be derived from the Lectures required under this donation, will arise, according to the donor's opinion, from their publication. The great value of these Lectures, if well digested. will at once occur to the professional reader, embracing, as they do, five distinct branches of legal instruction, with a large portion of the Civil Law.

The donation by Mr. Dane was immediately and gratefully accepted, and in pursuance of his wishes the Honorable Judge Story was chosen first professor. John H. Ashmun, Esq. of Northampton, who possesses distinguished legal learning, and experience as an instructer, was chosen Royall Professor of Law in the place of Chief Justice Parker, who had previously

resigned

The law school under its new organization went into operation in the summer of 1829. It is designed to furnish a complete and thorough legal education for those intended for the bar in different parts of the United States, and elementary instruction for those not destined to the bar, but who wish to prepare themselves for public life or commercial business. The various branches that we have mentioned are taught, besides the Common, Admiralty, and Equity Professor Ashmun has the immediate charge and superintendence of the school, and also examines the students, and occasionally delivers lectures. Judge Story resides at Cambridge, and when not engaged in his judicial duties assists in the superintendence of the school, and delivers lectures. His Lectures will embrace the whole range pointed out in the statutes of Mr. Dane. Already we have

had the first fruits of the professorship, in his Commentaries on the Law of Bailments, a work of very great value, to which we called the attention of our readers in a former number of our Review.* And we look forward to his future publications as among our choicest legal Annuals, as honorable payments of the great debt which, we were taught of old, every man owes his profession.

The personal accommodations for students are very good. They have the privilege of occupying studies in the college buildings on the same terms as undergraduates, and of board in commons at \$1.75 per week. The tuition fee is \$100 per annum, with the full right, without any additional charge, of attending all the public lectures of the University, which are numerous and valuable, and the use of the general library, consisting of thirty-five thousand volumes. A charge of \$10 per annum is made for instruction in each of the modern languages. The full term of study for graduates of a college is three years; for those who have not been graduated, five years. Favorable provision is also made for short terms of study, without subdividing any of the terms. The students have also the use of the law library, of three thousand volumes, which, as well as the library of the University, is rapidly increasing. The students write dissertations from time to time on subjects connected with their course of reading, "and every week a most court is held, at which, in rotation, they argue questions of law." In this court, we believe, strict attention is paid to the orderly pleading in each case. The students have besides a club for miscellaneous discussions and improvement in extemporaneous speaking.

The prescribed course of study is critical and systematic. There is the regular course, which is to be thoroughly studied; and a parallel course designed for occasional refer-The introductory part of the regular course embraces Blackstone's, Woodeson's, and Kent's Commentaries; then follow works on the Law of Personalty, Commercial and Maritime Law, Law of Real Estate, Equity, Crown Law, Civil Law, Law of Nations, and Constitutional Law. This selection is made on great consideration, we doubt not, and

is to be closely pursued.

In addition to his first donation, Mr. Dane within the last

^{*} American Monthly Review for April, 1832. pp. 329-336.

year contributed chiefly to the erection of a Law College in Cambridge, which was finished and dedicated in October last. The building is of brick, "forty feet in front by sixty deep," and is designed "to furnish rooms for the professors, librarian, library, recitations, and lectures." Mr. Dane, by this munificent benefaction, has supplied a want that was much felt, and has added another claim to the gratitude of the profession and of the public.

We do not intend to institute any invidious comparison between the relative advantages of the Cambridge law school and other law schools; nor is it necessary. The former is rapidly gaining upon public and professional favor, a proof of which appears in the constantly increasing number of pulils. In October, 1829, the number was twenty-seven; in July, 1830, thirty-six, and at the present time forty-five.

We have ever entertained the orinion, and our observation has strengthened it, and such we believe is fast becoming the general sentiment of the community, that in order best to arrive at what Lord Coke aptly terms the "gladsome light of jurisprudence," it is far better that the student should pass a large portion of his novitiate in a law school. where study is reduced to a system, where he can be sure of the time and assistance of his instructer, where the mind of the teacher can act directly and intimately on the mind of the pupil, and where his time and attention will not be drawn away from the general principles, the science of his profession, to the technical forms, the dry detail of business, which are his continued interruption and trouble in the office of a practising lawyer. These last indeed must be learned, that the pupil may be prepared for practice; but in proper order, and according to the analogy of other studies, it comes after he is well grounded in the science of his profession, when principles and definitions are well settled in his mind; and he will then more readily understand the meaning and intention of practical forms. But we need not enlarge on this subject, nor upon the benefit derived from the various aids and facilities afforded by a law school, connected with a flourishing literary institution, nor upon the excellent influence exerted upon the student by the quickening action of the learning, talents, and industrious attention of the teacher, and by coming into constant and immediate contact with others pursuing the same studies and struggling on to the same goal.

All these subjects are well discussed, elucidated, and, we may say, settled, in the Address upon which we have remarked. And others in this country, and lately, in England, the learned professor of King's Col'ege, and we believe Professor Amos of the London University, have satisfactorily enforced the same views. The law is a liberal study, expanding the mind, and strengthening the understanding, and entering intimately into all the various relations of public, civil, social, and domestic life; and in some good proportion as it is pursued as a science, will be its extensive influence, and its healthful operation upon all the multiplied and shifting interests of the community.

ART. VIII. — Geology: Comprising the Elements of the Science in its present advanced state. Designed for the Use of Schools and Private Learners. Illustrated by [two] Engravings. By D. J. BROWNE. Boston. William Hyde and Co. 1832. 18mo. pp. 108.

Mr. D. J. Browne is a hardened literary burglar. He has been admonished, and doubtless the public has inflicted on him some pecuniary mulct. He is however very bold, but we trust not incorrigible. The book before us is the first of a dozen thefts, which this old offender has now determined to perpetrate. He openly avows his plan, telling us that this is only the first number of a series of "First Lessons in Natural History," a series on "Chemistry, Mineralogy, Zoölogy, Mazology, Ornithology, Piscology," &c. As this is the determined purpose, the malice prepense, of D. J. Browne, we know not how to shame him out of it, except by setting him in our pillory, and depositing there some of the goods he has already purloined from other men. Let every man claim his own; there can be no mistake about the property, and its rightful owner.

This stringer together of stolen patches, lacks the tact and cunning, common to adepts, "so far stept in" in mischief. He has not taken the usual precaution, of altering the secreted articles, except in a few cases; and the alterations consist in wanton defacement. Perhaps D. J. Browne thought himself perfectly secure in taking page after page for his book, from De La Beche's "Manual," because this work is, unfortu-

nately, very little known among us. We invited public attention to it, almost as soon as it was issued from the American press, in our Seventh Number. Since that period, a second edition has appeared in England, and the work is highly spoken of in the Scotch Philosophical Journals; whilst the only work in New-England, whose object it professedly is to keep the public alive to such things, and a work too on which the community relies for its scientific news, has, in all its numbers published since the appearance of the "Manual," preserved a continued silence, not even mentioning it among the list of publications. Well then might the Compiler of this book think, that he could freely take word for word, sentence for sentence, page for page, notes, and even the very punctuation, from De La Beche's "Manual," without the slightest acknowledgment, not even so much as " " to show us that he was indebted to any person for sentence or syllable. * He would fain have the world believe him wiser than he is, and would palm on our credulity even the very opening sentence of Chapter I. But it is all, every word, except "rotary" for "rotatory," from De La Beche. The same remark applies to the WHOLE of Chapter III. which treats of the "superficial distribution of Land and Water;" De La Beche's own Caption. The only alterations in the chapter, are, semidiameter for "radius," bodies, for "masses"; called, for "termed"; salt, for "saline"; layer, for "strata"; land, for "terrestrial."

There are however, in Chapter III, two instances of that de-

There are however, in Chapter III, two instances of that defacement to which we have alluded. "La Place calculated that the mean depth of the ocean was a small fraction of ten miles." We have italicized the defacement, and now add the true reading from De La Beche; "a small fraction of TWENTY-FIVE MILES, the difference produced in the diameters of the earth by the flattening of the poles." The other instance is the substitution of the following, — "with matter

^{*}De La Beche is indeed mentioned by "the author" in his Preface, among a dozen authors of "Geological works," whose names are given, and "others" whose names are not given, — "from which this work is principally composed." But as this is the only indication of the use made of a crowd of authors, who would imagine any other use to be made of them, than that of helps for composing "a short outline," (for "those who are desirous of beginning the delightful study of Geology,") in the author's own language?

partaking of the properties of salt," for De La Beche's "saline matter." De La Beche intended to express saline matter generally: — D. J. Browne confines himself, by his

own ignorance, to common salt.

Chapter IV. is also WHOLLY taken from De La Beche. even the very note, the import of which D. J. Browne does not comprehend. It is a note transferred from the tenth page of the "Manual," to the matters treated of in the fifth page of that work; so far, well enough. It treats of the reduction of the centigrade scale to that of Fahrenheit. Now D. J. Browne ends his note in the middle, cutting off all allowances to be made for the Zero of Fahrenheit's scale being 320 below the zero of other scales; a fact, which he thinks quite unimportant, or he would have put "young persons" on their guard. He ought to have reduced the degrees himself, and not to have employed the centigrade scale at all. But this he could not do, as we shall see presently. We note the following alterations from De La Beche in this Fourth Chapter: "freezing point," for "zero"; "greatest," for "maximum"; "layers," for "strata"; "of the earth," for " of our spheroid." We add, to the confusion no doubt, of D. J. Browne, the following defacements of De La Beche. These are conclusive evidence, that the compiler of this book is wholly incompetent to understand the simplicity of the centigrade scale, and wofully ignorant of the elements of the doctrine of heat. Quoting from the "Manual" the observations of Arago, on the temperature of the earth, he says, that "the temperature of the water of the sea, in no latitude, and in no season, rises above 30 centigrade degrees," omitting the sign +. Then he omits, after "Heat," this sentence, which is an essential part, and without which, the word "heat" is useless. Here is the omitted part: "derived from the sun, producing such great effects at present." Take now the sentence, as quoted by D. J. Browne: "Heat; it has been supposed that a difference in the relative position of our great luminary would cause a corresponding change in the surface-temperature of the Globe." - Supply the omission, and the sentence is intelligi-

Again, the "Manual" having alluded to the ancient opinion of the probability of central heat, speaks of the recent experiments to prove this opinion true. All the experiments are omitted in the work before us, except a few thrown into notes." De La Beche having proved pretty satisfactorily, that the "theory" of central heat is no theory,—D. J. Browne has the modesty to alter "the probability of a central heat," to this; "the probability of this theory."

So, if he had even comprehended the experiments, he could never have altered De La Beche in these words. Besides. he goes on after this with De La Beche's own language, word for word, to prove the " probability of a central heat." till he comes to the experiments and reasoning of Baron Here again he is beyond his depth, and endeavouring to swim, he flounces and flounders, and dies in the following "flurry." "He concluded this temperature was dissipated into the surrounding planetary spaces, the temperature of which he concluded from the laws of Radiant Heat to be equal to 50 cent"igrade degrees above zero, or 90 degrees F." All in italics is D. J. Browne's; all the rest, if we add the sign - before 50, is from De La Beche. Unfortunate stupidity! Now, Mr. Browne, if you had not wished to appear more learned than you really are, you never would have added that unlucky italicized portion. Had you contented yourself with the honest quotation, we should in charity have supposed that for any small error or omission of a sign, the little inky imp was in fault, and not you; but alas, - that sad addition! oh, that you could blot it out; - we indeed commiserate your rashness.

Doubtless you are staring, and gaping, and wondering what all this talk is about. We know you do not, cannot understand us. We will therefore unbend the tenter-hooks, and let you slip out of the way, whilst we unfold the mystery to the public. But we must ask pardon and indulgence. We really do not mean to offend the public, by pointing out self-evident mistakes; and therefore, softly as we can, in mere mercy to your fatuity, we ask the public, if the planetary space is "50 centigrade degrees above zero, or 90 F.," how the earth, which D. J. Browne has told us will never attain the 46th centigrade degree, can dissipate its heat into

that distant and warmer region.

We again turn to Mr. Browne and ask, What are the laws of radiant heat? Can you tell? Hold up your head like a man,—speak. Doubtless you can answer, but you will not; because if you do, you stand self-confounded in the above you. III. No. I.

italicized addition. We hope you will forbear to instruct others, till you have learned the rudiments of science at least.

The whole of Chapter VI. and last, on "Earthquakes," is word for word from De La Beche, — with one single exception, — "such as generally accompany," for "such as we have seen common."

We have exhibited D. J. Browne's character for honesty, and his qualifications for teaching, in their true light. With what confidence then can we listen to him, on a subject, which, as much at least as any, requires a sound intellect, and a wide and varied extent of deep learning? - a subject. which is the last lesson generally of learned men. Why is it, that attempts seem now systematically made to cram the infant mind with Geology, by persons, to whom the very first rudiments of a good common education seem to be perfect mysteries? We have shown how many whole chapters in this book have been stolen from De La Beche, being about one seventh part of the compilation. There are other chapters, better suited for a book-maker, which we have not taken pains to trace to their origin. It is not to the matter of the extracts that we object, in itself considered, but to the manner, time, and place. The other chapters are devoted to a mineralogical description of the various rocks composing the crust of the globe. There is little or nothing in them which can be intelligible to "young persons, and private learners," who are unacquainted with mineralogy. This number of the "series" is then certainly premature. It will not convey to any one any definite idea of the " present advanced state of Geology," as it professes to do. So far as the rock descriptions are concerned, we find them much in the same state that they were half a century since. They are good general descriptions, but perfectly useless to the uninitiated. The book is worthless, - fit neither to buy, borrow, beg, nor steal; though on the last point we differ "tota cælo" from D. J. Browne.

ART. IX. 1.— The New-Hampshire Collection of Church Music. By Henry E. Moore. Concord. Jacob B. Moore. 1832. pp. 349.

 The Choir, or Union Collection of Church Music. By Lowell Mason. Boston. Carter and Hendee. 1832. pp. 358.

3. The American Harp. Arranged and Composed by Charles Zeuner. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. pp. 386.

HERE are three collections of Church Music, which have within a very short time been brought before the public; and as they all advance claims to the attention of the psalm-singers of this country, it may not be improper to give some account of them in the pages of our Review. But in the first place we wish to disclaim all pretensions to such a knowledge of the subject, as would enable us to criticize accurately the mere scientific correctness of the works before us. The mysteries of harmony and counterpoint are rarely understood, except by professional musicians; and we are strongly inclined to the belief that there are not many even of the profession, in this country, who are very profoundly versed in them. But church music, though made by men learned in the art of composition, is for the use of the unlearned, and we may perhaps be allowed to form and express an opinion how far it is adapted to the purposes for which it was designed.

"The New-Hampshire Collection" owes its origin to the general dissatisfaction which was caused by the perpetual changes which the music in some of our popular collections was made to undergo. The object of its editor appears to have been to bring together and make accessible, the old popular Church Melodies, and to preserve them in their original form. The design was certainly good, though we are doubtful as to the success of its execution. In the first place we think that the editor has gone too far, and introduced many tunes which are decidedly of a vulgar character, and calculated to corrupt rather than improve the public taste. There is a distinction to be made. Music may be perfectly simple and popular in its character, and yet so pure and chaste as to give pleasure to the most cultivated and refined ear. Again, it may be, not only simple, but coarse, so

that no scientific precision can possibly make it pleasing. We think that too much music of the latter character has

found a place in this work.

Again; while we think too much care cannot be taken to preserve the old music in its original state, still we think that no want of entire accuracy should be tolerated. We confess ourselves ambitious that our countrymen should possess a delicate and correct taste in matters of art, as well as judgment and skill in matters of mere practical utility. In order to this we are anxious that good models in every kind of art should be presented to the public, and if possible no From such examination as we have made, we feel sure that the harmonies in this work cannot be relied upon for entire correctness. On the whole, then, we cannot think that "The New-Hampshire Collection" in its present condition will do a great deal for the improvement of the art in this country. Still we are glad that such a collection of the old favorite melodies has been made, and hope that the editor will be encouraged in another edition to free it from its present defects.

"The Choir" is by the Editor of the Handel and Haydn Society's "Collection," and professes to be mostly original. We took occasion in a former number to make some remarks with regard to this Society's "Collection," and to make some strictures upon the system which had been adopted for its management. We thought, and still think, that the patronage and name of the Handel and Haydn Society, was unfairly used to sustain abuses which ought not to be tolerated any "The Choir" is also ushered into the world under the patronage of the Handel and Haydn Society. Trustees of that association have "unanimously resolved." that in their opinion the book is a "valuable acquisition to the stock of Church Music." Those who are familiar with the book which the Society has allowed to be published with its name and under its auspices, will best know how much the recommendation of its board of Trustees is worth.

At the end of the Preface we find the following notice: "N. B. Editors and publishers of music are cautioned against republishing pieces from this work. With the exception of a very few old tunes, the whole of 'The Choir' (including the arrangements from European authors) is claimed as property, and has been secured according to law."

This is in the true Day and Martin style, and reminds us a little too forcibly of the "Beware of counterfeits," "Caution to the public," "None are genuine unless signed W. T. Conway," and other puffing advertisements of blacking, patent wash-tubs, and razor-strops, quack medicines, and the like. Perhaps we wrong Messrs. Day and Martin by mentioning them in this connexion, for they are truly artists in their way, and the whole race of exquisites and boot-blacks

are under heavy obligations to them.

As to the music, the right to which has been so carefully secured, we have not much to say. In our opinion it has The old description, "coldly correct and not much merit. critically dull," applies well enough to that portion of it which we have examined. To this there are, however, some exceptions. The favorite old Scotch air, "We're a' noddin," for instance, which has been arranged (vid. Sudbury, page 55), and is intended, we suppose, to pass for original, no credit being given for it, is at least sprightly enough. We think it would prove particularly edifying to a devout and serious congregation, to hear the merry strains of "Nid ned noddin" sung to some of the devotional poetry of Watts. We recommend "Yankee Doodle," and "Molly put the kettle on" to the editor's candid attention, in case he should find it profitable to publish another edition.

"The American Harp" is altogether a different affair. being the production of a man of genius and learning. character of its author is, we suppose, a sufficient voucher for its correctness; and we have the certificate of some of the most distinguished professors to the same purpose. Such a collection of music, so new and original in its character, and so well adapted to the capacities of our choirs, is a most valuable acquisition. We believe it will do more for the art than any other work which has appeared in this country. We understand that the author, Mr. Zeuner, is now engaged in preparing a collection of the popular old music, which is to be properly arranged and brought into such a form as may possibly be permanent. He has given a specimen of his skill in this business, in his arrangement of the favorite old tune of China, which he has published in "The Harp." If he will give us a collection of old music, arranged in the same manner, we have do doubt that it will take the place of all the other collections.

ART. X. — Collections of the New-Hampshire Historical Society. Vol. III. Concord. Jacob B. Moore. 1832. 8vo. pp. 304.

WE regard the increase of Historical Societies as among the good fruits springing out of the active and inquisitive spirit of the present age. Many men of industry, — many men of enlightened learning, — and many good scholars, are engaged in the apparently humble but very praiseworthy labor of aggregating the mouldering materials of a former day to be preserved for the future history of our country. They are doing this individually, and with more effect as members of Societies, which, by the influence of numbers and combined zeal, give a quickening influence beyond the

effort of the solitary student.

The effect of all this will be to make our histories more authentic, we trust, than those of the old world. We shall be widely separated from the old chronicles, the superstitions of monks, the rank and bigoted narrations of Popery on the one hand, and of its enemies on the other, and shall look more than heretofore for the shadowing out of truth in its beauty, simplicity, and harmonious proportions. History deals indeed in grand results; but then these are constituted of incidents which, taken severally, may seem of little value; while the importance of the narration is too commonly estimated rather by the amount of bloodshed and murder that is set forth, than by descriptions of the character and genius of the people and the reciprocal influence of institutions, habits, manners, morals, and laws.

Our Historical Societies have already done much in collecting and preserving materials for history. The Massachusetts Society, the Magna parens frugum, took the lead many years ago, and has already published twenty-two volumes of "Collections." The example has of late been followed in several of the other States. In New Hampshire the third volume of "Collections" has recently appeared. The Society in that State was formed on the 20th of May, 1823, at the termination of the second century from the first settlement on the pleasant banks of the Piscataqua. The first volume appeared in 1824, the second in 1827; between which and the present volume, there is the long interval of five years,

sufficient indeed for selecting with care matters of interest and importance. The first volume is the most valuable of the three, as containing a minute history of the town of Concord, and more especially for the reprint of Penhallow's "Indian Wars." The third has several interesting articles, but the selections are not always carefully made, if, as we suppose, they are drawn from an abundant fund. There is much, however, that is worthy of preservation,—in the memoirs of individuals, sketches of town histories, and brief notices of Graduates of Dartmouth College. There is a well-wrought account of the destruction of the Willey family in the Notch of the White Mountains, in August, 1826, written by Professor Upham; also several original papers connected with the early history of New-Hampshire and Massachusetts.

We hope the members of this Society will be prompted to persevere in their good undertaking with assiduous zeal, and that they will not consider the privilege of membership as a sinecure, but, on the contrary, as furnishing the opportunity and incentive to successful exertion, and that we may in future have the satisfaction of seeing the volumes of their "Collections" published at shorter intervals than heretofore.

ART. XI. — Westward Ho! a Tale. By the Author of "The Dutchman's Fireside," &c. New-York. J. & J. Harper. 1832. 2 Vols. 12mo. pp. 203 and 196.

MR. PAULDING is an old acquaintance, whose appearance, since the days of "Salmagundi," we have always hailed, as we would hail an esteemed friend, whose society has often yielded us delight and improvement. We like the man, because he is purely American; not merely by birth and citizenship, but American in thought, in feeling, and in sentiment. He clings to his "native land" with the enthusiasm of a scholar, and the affection of a patriot. Instead of spending his days among the legends of the old world, he contributes his varied talents and acquirements to the establishment of a national literature in the new. We admire his inventive genius, his vivid imagination, the classic elegance of his composition, and that rich and happy vein of humor, which

runs through all his works, imparting a freshness and a

beauty rarely found in writings of the present day.

"Westward Ho!" is particularly welcome at this time, for the very good reason, that we have not had the pleasure of reading a first-rate novel for a long while. Not that there is any dearth of novels; - on the contrary, the booksellers who find it impossible to sell them, and our ancient blues who are unable to keep pace in perusing them, can testify that professed novelists are as plenty as lawyers, and almost as busy and prolific as politicians. But a more shabby set than these same gentlemen of the quill (with a few exceptions) can scarcely be found, unless perhaps among our ephemeral The best of them are but miserable imitators of the faults and defects, without discernment to select the beauties, of foreign writers. Since the days of "Childe Harold," a legion of would-be bards have sprung up, bearing the escutcheon without a spark of the genius of the young patrician; thinking to share his laurels by railing at the world and the powers that be. And when Sir Walter Scott made his appearance, a similar revolution took place in the department of Romance. The works of Fielding, and Richardson, and Smollet were forthwith laid upon the shelf, while both readers and critics offered homage to the newly installed idol. Authors, too, caught the fashionable mania; and since that time our novels have for the most part been wretched imitations, or ridiculous caricatures. Some exceptions, to be sure, there are. A few have had the independence and originality to strike out a course for themselves: but even these seem to be slumbering, as if in sympathy with the "Great Magician," whose wand is laid aside for ever. Irving, whose early writings gained an immortal fame, seems to have lost himself in the solitude and mysteries of the "Alhambra." Cooper too - our favorite Cooper - inimitable in describing American scenery, and American manners, and unsurpassed in arousing the deep and powerful feelings of the soul, seems also to have buried his genius among the ruins of the "Heidenmaur," and disordered his fancy by the religion, and philosophy, and superstition of

"Westward Ho!" is characterized by the spirit and vivacity which usually mark the writings of its author. The story is simple, and for the greater part original. The reader is

introduced to a gentleman of Virginia, by the name of Dangerfield, who has a race-horse and a wife; the former of which proves his ruin, — the latter, mirabile dictu! his salvation. The Colonel was one of those careless, generous souls, so often found among our southern planters, who would sooner spend the last cent than close the door of hospitality. This trait of character, together with his utter incapacity for any thing like economy or calculation, brings him to the verge of bankruptcy. At length the defeat of Barebones, on which he had staked his all, completes the business, and obliges him "to pull up stakes" and retire into Kentucky, where he resolves to found a city. He takes with him his wife and two children, - Mr. Littlejohn, a sort of sixteenth cousin who lived with him in his affluence and scorned to desert him in adversity, - Pompey the Great, alias " Pompey Ducklegs," his quondam groom, and Pompey the little, a lineal descendant of Pompey the great, two degrees removed. Having arrived at their place of destination, they set about cutting down trees and putting up buildings with so much energy, that in a few years the forest was converted into the beautiful village of Dangerfieldville, - named after its author and founder, according to the good old custom handed down from Romulus.

About this time, and when Mr. Dangerfield's only daughter was on the verge of that interesting period of life which renders females especially dangerous to behold, a young stranger of melancholy appearance arrives in the village. He of course falls desperately in love with Virginia, and she with him, in spite of her parents, and of Mrs. Paddock, the worthy spouse of Mr. Zeno Paddock, village schoolmaster and politician. But Dudley Rainsford, before he could claim the lovely Virginia as his own, had much to endure, like all true heroes. But his were not the perils of the sword and the lance; he was not doomed by his "ladie love" to wander over the earth in quest of adventures, as were the knights of vore: he had the more difficult task of becoming mad, stark mad; wandering through the forests and sleeping upon the rocks; haunting the grave-yards at night, and communing, in the wild and fearful language of a maniac, with the dead. This malady was constitutional; or, to speak more correctly, it was the consequence of indulging in presentiments. Dudley's father and brothers had run mad and destroyed themselves, and the impression was fixed on his mind that he must share a similar fate. Under the influence of this impression, and through the agency of a fanatical preacher, he did become a maniac; but for the sake of Virginia and the story, we suppose he recovered.

ginia and the story, we suppose he recovered.

The characters are well sustained. The heroine has not the ideal beauty with which Scott has invested Rebecca, the Jewess, nor the high-born dignity of the Lady Rowena; but she possesses qualities which constitute her a much more natural character than the former, and more attractive than the latter. She is such a woman, in fine, as we should like to exhibit in the author's own delineation, if we had room

to place the picture.

We cannot review the various characters in detail; but we will just touch upon one, which we suppose is drawn to the life, viz. the "transcendent" Bushfield, who was "perhaps the almightiest, happiest feller that ever hunted a buffalo"; who loved nothing so well as the "splendid independence of living in the woods, fifteen or twenty miles from any body," where "the bears and the wolves come howling and growling round the house at night so beautifully"; where his vision could not be obscured by the smoke of a neighbour's chimney; where there was no one "to lay a straw in his way " or talk to him or advise him; and "where there was no law but gentleman's law, and no niggers but black ones"; and who for want of these luxuries, "cut a stick" and carried a trail across the Mississippi, where he was at length seen "sitting upright against a tree, his rifle between his legs, and resting on his shoulder, having shot his last shot, killed his last buffalo, and sunk into his last sleep." He is in truth an original, and we venture to predict that he will prove a favorite with the majority of readers.

The moral of "Westward Ho!" unlike that of many fashionable novels of the present day is decidedly a good one; viz. the folly and imprudence of indulging gloomy forebodings and presentiments of coming evil. These are clearly and powerfully portrayed in the history of Rainsford, and we think him a character drawn true to nature. For how often do we see the victims of this superstitious habit in real life! How often do we see men deriving omens of future ills, from the appearance of a planet, or the notes of a bird, or the whistling of the wind, — which being grounded in that superstition

that more or less clings to every one, and cherished by a disordered imagination, impart to their lives a melancholy hue, and not unfrequently occasion real calamities. For let the idea be deeply impressed upon the mind that some unknown and fearful evil is impending, — and ten to one it does come; not because there was in truth a revelation, but because when the mind becomes accustomed to think of it, and view it as inevitable, the actions all tend naturally, though perhaps imperceptibly, to bring down the calamities apprehended and expected. We ourselves are acquainted with men of education and talents, who, while they are ashamed to acknowledge their superstition, are nevertheless pleased to see the "new moon over the right shoulder," and are very cautious how they commence an undertaking of importance on Friday, lest they should prove unfortunate, according to the old superstition which pronounces this to be among the dies nefasti. And if through accident or necessity they do begin, on this unlucky day, a business which depends upon their own exertions, they seldom are successful; for the very good reason that they engage in it under the impression that they cannot succeed. But besides the real evils which this habit occasions, it effectually destroys all peace and happiness. victim of imaginary woes is of all mortals the most constantly and desperately wretched. For him every breeze is laden with pestilence, every sound is the death-knell; and when he walks abroad and views the works of nature, it is not to gather strength and spirits for the conflicts of life, but to cherish the dark visions of a morbid fancy, to increase their gloomy forebodings and dismal apprehensions, and to pervert all that is grand and sublime in the creation of God.

In the introductory paragraph of our review of Dr. Spurzheim's "Outlines of Phrenology," in the eleventh Number

ART. XII. — Funeral Oration: delivered before the Citizens of Boston assembled at the Old South Church, Nov. XVII, at the Burial of Gaspar Spurzheim, M. D., of the Universities of Vienna and Paris, and Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians in London. By Charles Follen, J. U. D. Boston. Marsh, Capen, & Lyon. 1832. 8vo. pp. 32.

of this Journal, we said that "the greatest living master of the science of Phrenology, as it is called, will, before our remarks shall reach the public, have completed his course of lectures upon it in our metropolis and at the place of our University, and probably have gained many disciples." But it pleased the All-wise Disposer of events to arrest this great philosopher and philanthropist in the course of his labors, so that all our anticipations were not literally fulfilled; and those who listened with delight to his public defence and illustrations of his system, lost one or two of his concluding lectures.

We have looked back to what we had written before the illness of Dr. Spurzheim; and though we do not perceive any thing unsound in the view we then took of the peculiarities of his system, yet we feel it due to ourselves and to the multitude of his admirers and friends, as well as to the memory of so good and great a man, to declare that neither our want of faith in that system, nor the consequences which seem to us to flow from it, did then, or do now detract from our respect for its author. We felt a strong good will towards him, from the first moment of an unexpected introduction to him, which was strengthened by all that we knew and all that we heard of him; and in common with the faithless and the believing, we were charmed with his manner of lecturing, with the fullness of instructive illustration and moral beauty which appeared to pour forth spontaneously from the lips of this profound observer of the human race. In fine we cannot in any other way so well express our affectionate and respectful remembrance of Dr. Spurzheim, as in the following beautiful tribute to his memory, in Professor Follen's "Funeral Oration":

"Amidst innumerable instances of ample means and noble talents neglected and abused, it is a source of consolation and of hope to meet with an individual, who, being born to great intellectual riches, employs them, not in order to establish his own superiority over others, but rather to counteract the partiality of nature, by endeavouring to elevate the condition of his fellow-men, until his own greatness be lost in the general advancement of society. It is a source of philanthropic enthusiasm to meet with an individual who uses his superior knowledge, not to eclipse, or to dazzle, or to enslave others, but to enable and to induce all men to see the truth, that the

truth may make them free. - It has been our privilege lately to become acquainted with such a true friend of human freedom and universal happiness; to have our minds called forth by his invigorating and inspiring energy; while our affections grew up around him to prepare a home for the solitary stranger. Our eyes have followed his noble figure in the streets of our city; we have sought his presence in the crowded hall. to listen with interest and delight to the original thoughts, the generous sentiments, the practical wisdom, flowing forth in rich streams of native eloquence, from the pure fountains of his soul; and there we have waited till the crowd had dispersed, to press his hand in gratitude, for our share of the general benefit. We have seen him sitting down to sumptuous meals provided in honor of him, and have seen him fasting for the want of food adapted to his simple taste. We have welcomed him at our firesides, we have seen him surrounded by our children, and the hearty applause he drew from these little hearers who listen with their hearts, and judge by their affections, has convinced us that the charm which had attached us to the successful lecturer, was not the spell of a great name, or of talent, learning, or eloquence; that the light which shone in his countenance, was not the reflection of many lamps, or of admiring eyes, but that it was the spirit of truth and goodness within, which lighted up his face, and gave life and meaning to every sound and every motion." pp. 3, 4.

Professor Follen has succeeded remarkably in his biographical sketch of Dr. Spurzheim, if we consider the short period which was allowed him to collect the facts, and the scanty and scattered materials from which he was obliged to draw them. The short extract which we shall now make brings us down from the birth of Spurzheim to the period in which circumstances seemed to fix, and give a direction to his future course in life:

"GASPAR SPURZHEIM was born on the 31st of December, 1775, at Longvich, a village about seven miles from the city of Treves, on the Moselle, in the lower circle of the Rhine, now under the dominion of Prussia. His father was a farmer, and in his religious persuasion, a Lutheran. Young Spurzheim received his classical education at the college of Treves; and was destined by his friends, for the profession of Theology. In consequence of the war between Germany and France, in 1797, the students of that college were dispersed, and Spurzheim went to Vienna. Here he devoted himself to the study of medicine, and became the pupil, and afterward the associate of 62

Dr. Gall, who was at that time established as a physician at Vienna." p. 5.

The account of the joint labors of Gall and Spurzheim in propagating their scientific discoveries and theories from the year 1804 to the year 1813; the single labors of the latter, after that period, till the time of his lamented death; the history of his scientific conflicts, of his domestic happiness and domestic afflictions, of his residence and toils in this vicinity, and of his last illness and his death, we are obliged to pass over, and to conclude our extracts with the candid and truly philosophical remarks of Professor Follen on the views of Gall and Spurzheim concerning "the conformity between the manifestations of the mind and the developement of the brain."

"Whether the system, in consequence of repeated observation, be generally approved or rejected, it may be presumed that the consequences of its triumph, or its defeat, will hardly verify all the predictions of its friends, or its enemies. Gall's and Spurzheim's theory of the conformity between the brain and the mind, should be found substantially true, it will occupy the highest place among the different branches of physiology, and will present a new and most important evidence of the providential adaptation of matter to mind. It will also open a new way of studying human nature and individual character. Still its results will never amount to more than probable conjectures, and will consequently not supersede, or render less important, the common mode of ascertaining that which is in man, by the light of experience and history, particularly by observing the operations of our own minds, by means of which we are enabled to understand and estimate the actions and professions of others. With regard to moral philosophy, the works of Gall and Spurzheim will convince all of the great importance of the study of nature, and particularly of physiology, in order to arrive at sound views of morality. But the influence of the peculiar doctrines of phrenology upon Ethics will hardly be so great as its authors anticipated. Though the works of Spurzheim abound in noble and salutary views and precepts, yet the great subject which lies at the foundation of moral philosophy, the moral free-agency and responsibility of man, cannot be determined by the physiology of the brain, however true to nature.

"On the other hand, if a deeper study of nature should lead to a general rejection of phrenology, still all those important

facts and principles which, though advanced by phrenologists, are independent of their peculiar doctrines, will endure; and among them Dr. Spurzheim's principles of education will ever hold a distinguished place. The merits of Gall and Spurzheim as anatomists, and observers of man, will not be forgotten; nay they will probably be more freely acknowledged since death has removed both the master and his more eminent disciple from the field of strife, and thus put a solemn veto upon all personal and party excitement which has hitherto intermingled with the discussions about phrenology." pp. 16, 17.

Though Professor Follen considered himself called to "the solemn task to speak the praises" of Spurzheim, "as his countryman by birth, and by adoption and domestic ties a citizen of this country," yet, apart from this, we do not see how the task could have fallen to one, who would perform it with greater ability and good judgment; who would more thoroughly sympathize with all that was most lovely and praiseworthy in his departed friend; and who would more effectually secure the fellow-feeling of all good men, both with the lamented philanthropist who is commemorated, and with the author of the memorial.

ART. XIII. — Indian Biography: or an Historical Account of those Individuals who have been distinguished among the North American Natives, as Orators, Warriors, Statemen, and other Remarkable Characters. By B. B. THATCHER, Esq. In 2 vols. New-York. J. & J. Harper. 1832. 18mo. pp. 324 and 319.

MR. THATCHER has been favorably known to the public as a literary contributor to the annuals, and as the author of an able article in "The North American Review," on "Indian Biography." We were prepared for a work full of interest, thorough in research, accurate in detail, and able in execution; nor have our expectations been disappointed. It is but justice to say they have been exceeded. The volumes before us are among the most remarkable productions of the day, and will occupy a permanent place in the literature of the country. How they will be received abroad remains to be seen; but if we may judge from the great interest excited, by Mr. Cooper's delineations

of Indian character, in England, France, and Germany, we may be allowed to anticipate for the author of this work a welcome as cordial as he can wish, wherever American au-

thorship is known.

Mr. Thatcher views it correctly as an act of historical justice to a much abused race. From our earliest childhood the name of an Indian has been associated with all the horror of blood-thirsty and remorseless cruelty. Tales of men, women, and children, led captive or butchered with every circumstance of barbaric torture, are made familiar by constant fireside repetition. The Indian's resentment for real or supposed wrong has been construed into a fixed or demoniac malice; his bravery in defence of his village or his wigwam. against a foreign settler, the very acts that have immortalized the names of Thermopylæ and Marathon, have been painted in such false and forbidding colors, by partial or hostile historians, that justice towards them is an unknown attribute. The deep religious prejudices, the gloomy superstitions, the fearful condition of the early settlers, the gloom that overhung their prospects, the signs and omens and warnings that they saw or imagined, - deepened the shading that they were naturally inclined to give to their pictures of aboriginal char-These pictures have been the popular ones, until very lately, and probably to a great extent, are so still. The eloquent pens of Irving and Cooper have done something towards removing the aspersions under which they have labored, but no regular and serious effort has been made to redeem them from obloquy, until Mr. Thatcher assumed the task of vindicating their claims to historic justice. He has engaged in it with an enthusiastic love of truth and love of his subject, and has executed his work with zeal and fidelity. His researches have been extensive and accurate. We have been surprised with the amount of information he has been able to collect, for we did not suppose so much had been preserved. This information, derived from every possible source, Mr. Thatcher has wrought into a series of historical portraits, remarkable for their distinctness, interest, and truth. He describes the Aborigines as one who comprehends them thoroughly. In filling up the outlines, his coloring is vivid and beautiful; and he has lent to historic truth all the attractions of poetry and romance. He is led, in his researches, to the contemplation of many characters and scenes, that remind us of the simplicity, vigor, and hospitality of the Homeric age. He enters into their spirit, and sketches them with remarkable brilliancy. He does justice to the traits of manhood, daring, generosity, and, in some respects, consummate ability, which belonged to the Indian character. Their brief and nervous eloquence, their figurative and poetical expression, their acute logic, are discussed with a fulness of illustration, and a soundness of philosophical criticism, that give a permanent value to the work, and will, no doubt,

be duly appreciated by the public.

Part of the first volume is devoted to the Indians of Virginia and Carolina. Every body is familiar with the chivalrous character and romantic adventures of Captain Smith. The name of Pocahontas is dear to every friend of native virtue and simple purity. Her spotless life, her heroic character, her gentleness of soul, stand recorded in history, and will stand for ever. Nothing can exceed the interest which belongs to this part of the "Indian Biography." When we have said that Mr. Thatcher has done it justice, we have said all that can be said.

The following is a brief summary of the character of Powhatan, at the close of the interesting history of his life.

"In fine, it would seem, that no candid person can read the history of this famous Indian, with an attentive consideration of the circumstances under which he was placed, without forming a high estimate of his character as a warrior, a statesman, and a patriot. His deficiencies were those of education and not of genius. His faults were those of the people whom he governed and of the period in which he lived. talents, on the other hand, were his own; and these are acknowledged even by those historians who still regard him with prejudice. Stith calls him a prince of excellent sense and parts, and a great master of all the savage arts of government and policy. He adds, that he was penetrating, crafty, insidious, and cruel. 'But as to the great and moral arts of policy,' he concludes, 'such as truth, faith, uprightness, and magnanimity, they seem to have been but little heeded or regarded by him.' Burk's opinion appears to us more correct. In the cant of civilization, (says that excellent historian,) he will doubtless be branded with the epithets of tyrant and barbarian. But his title to greatness, though his opportunities were fewer, is to the full as fair as that of Tamerlane or Kowli Khan, and several others whom history has immortalized; VOL. 111. NO. 1.

while the proof of his tyranny are by no means so clear. Still, it might have been as reasonable to say, that there are no such proofs in being. The kind of martial law which the emperor sometimes exercised over his own subjects, was not only a matter of custom, founded on the necessity which must always exist among ignorant men; but it was a matter of license, which had grown into constitutional law, by common consent. It has been justly observed, that there is no possibility of a true despotism under an Indian government. It is reason that governs, — nominally at least, — and the authority is only the more effectual, as the obedience is more voluntary." — Vol. I. pp. 64, 65.

The following short extract may amuse our readers:

"One of the chief counsellors and priests of Powhatan, and the husband of his daughter Matachanna, was Томосомо, who went to England with Pocahontas, and returned with Captain Argall. Smith, who calls him Vttamatomakkin, says he was held by his countrymen to be 'a very understanding fellow.' The same inference might be made from the commission which Powhatan gave him, on the occasion just alluded to, to take the number of the people in England, and to bring him an exact and minute account of their strength and resources. Tomocomo set about that business with equal simplicity and zeal. Immediately on his arrival at Plymouth, he procured a long stick, whereupon to cut a notch with his knife for every man he should see. But he soon became weary of his task, and threw his stick away. When the emperor inquired, on his return, how many people there were, he could only compare them to the stars in the sky, the leaves on the trees, and the sands on the sea-shore.

"Mr. Purchas (compiler of the famous collection of voyages) was informed by President Dale, with whom Tomocomo went out from Virginia, that Opechancanough, and not Powhatan, had given him his instructions; and that the object of them was not so much to ascertain the population, as to form an estimate of the amount of corn raised, and of forest trees growing in England. Nomantack and the other savages who had previously visited that country, being ignorant, and having seen little of the British empire except London, had reported a very large calculation of the men and houses, while they said almost nothing about the trees and corn. It was therefore a general opinion among the Indians, that the English had settled in Virginia only for the purpose of getting supplies of these two articles; and in confirmation, they observed their continual

eagerness after corn, and the great quantities of cedar, clapboards, and wainscoting, which they annually exported to England. Tomocomo readily undeceived his countrymen upon this point. Landing in the west of England in summer, and travelling thence to London, he of course saw evidences of great agricultural and rural plenty and wealth; and was soon obliged to abandon the account he had undertaken to keep, — his arith-

metic failing him on the first day.

"In the British metropolis, he met accidentally with Captain Smith; and the two immediately renewed their ancient acquaintance. Tomocomo told the Captain, that Powhatan had given orders to request of him, - if indeed he was not dead, as reported, - the favor of showing Tomocomo the English God, and also their King, Queen, and prince, of whom they had formerly conversed so often together. 'As to God,' as Stith expresses it, 'Captain Smith excused and explained the matter the best he could.' As to the king, he told Tomocomo he had already seen him, which was true. But the Indian denied it; and it was not without some trouble that Smith, by mentioning certain circumstances, convinced him of the fact. The Indian then assumed a most melancholy look, 'Ah!' said he, 'you presented Powhatan a white dog which he fed as himself. Now. I am certainly better than a white dog; but your king has given me nothing.' Such an arch sense, adds the historian, had this savage of the 'stingy' treatment he had received at court. Nothing is known of Tomocomo after his return to America." — Vol. I. pp. 96 - 98.

The sketches of the Indians in New England are drawn with equal skill. The names of Massasoit, Alexander, and Philip, are familiarly known in the early history of the Plymouth settlement, and still better in the beautiful tribute to their memory by Mr. Irving. This part of the work will be acceptable to every New-Englander. It is sustained with unabated power throughout. Our limits forbid us to make any extracts, which we should otherwise gladly do, and we pass at once to the last, and as some think, most interesting biography in the volumes, — that of the celebrated chieftain Red-Jacket. The first volume contains an excellent likeness of this distinguished man. His figure was tall and commanding; his motion was dignified and graceful; and his head was of the highest order of manly beauty. No one could look upon him without feeling that Saguoaha, as he was called in the musical language of his tribe, was one of Nature's

great men. His eloquence was of the most winning and persuasive kind. His skill in reasoning would have done honor to the ablest disputant in a logic class at a University; while the tones of his voice were of that indefinable character, which sends at once the conviction of the understanding to the affection of the heart. His face and figure, once seen, cannot be forgotten; his voice, once heard, like the voice in Agamemnon's dream, "is still poured around us." His story, and his death, which took place in January, 1830, at the Seneca Village, are familiar to many of our readers, and we hope Mr. Thatcher's book will make it familiar to all. Nevertheless we cannot abstain from offering the following statement of his policy, with two specimens of his eloquence.

"They [his countrymen] elected him a chief; and then, upon all occasions, obeyed him in peace, and followed him in war.

"Red-Jacket justified their confidence by a strict adherence to principles, which, on the whole, are equally creditable to his heart and head, although either the policy itself, or his singular pertinacity in maintaining it, no doubt made him many adversaries and some enemies, even with his own people. He had early reflected upon and felt deeply the impotent insignificance to which the tribes were reduced; — and he resolved, if he could not restore them to their primitive position, at least to stay the progress of ruin. How should this be done, — was the great question, — by receiving civilization, or by resisting it?

"He determined on the latter alternative, [?] and from that hour never in the slightest degree swerved from his resolution to drive away and keep away every innovation on the character, and every intrusion on the territory, of the nation. Traders, travellers, teachers, missionaries, speculators in land, were regarded with the same jealousy. In a word, he labored against circumstances whose force had now become inevitable and irresistible, to maintain a system of complete Indian independence, which few of his countrymen understood, and still fewer were willing to practise.

"And this is the trait which distinguishes his character from the majority of those we have heretofore sketched. Some of the most eminent of the number, like Pontiac and Little-Turtle, were anxious to avail themselves of the arts of civilization at least, were it only for purposes of offence and defence against the race whom they borrowed from; and scarcely any were opposed, other than incidentally, to their introduction into Indian use. But Red-Jacket was a Pagan in principle. He advocated as well as acted Paganism on all occasions. He was prouder of his genuine *Indianism*, if possible, than he was of his oratory. His bitterest foe could not deny him the merit of frankness.

"One of his clearest manifestos, in explanation of his system, was delivered as long ago as May, 1811, before a council of the Senecas, held at Buffalo Creek, in the form of a speech to the Rev. Mr. Alexander, a missionary from a Society in the city of New-York, whose commission the address itself sufficiently explains.

"'Brother!'—the Orator began, with a complaisance which never, under any excitement, deserted him,—'Brother!—We listened to the talk you delivered us from the Council of Black-Coats,* in New-York. We have fully considered your talk, and the offers you have made us. We now return our answer, which we wish you also to understand. In making up our minds, we have looked back to remember what has been done in our days, and what our fathers have told us was done in old times.

among the Indians. With sweet voices and smiling faces, they offered to teach them the religion of the white people. Our brethren in the East listened to them. They turned from the religion of their fathers, and took up the religion of the white people. What good has it done? Are they more friendly one to another than we are? No, Brother! They are a divided people!—we are united. They quarrel about religion;—we live in love and friendship. Besides, they drink strong waters. And they have learned how to cheat, and how to practise all the other vices of the white people, without imitating their virtues. Brother!—If you wish us well, keep away; do not disturb us.

""Brother! — We do not worship the Great Spirit as the white people do, but we believe that the forms of worship are indifferent to the Great Spirit. It is the homage of sincere hearts that pleases him, and we worship him in that manner.

"'According to your religion, we must believe in a Father and Son, or we shall not be happy hereafter. We have always believed in a Father, and we worship him as our old men taught us. Your book says that the Son was sent on earth by the Father. Did all the people who saw the Son believe him? No! they did not. And if you have read the book, the consequence must be known to you.

[&]quot;* His usual designation of Clergymen."

""Brother! — You wish us to change our religion for yours. We like our religion, and do not want another. Our friends here [pointing to Mr. Granger, the Indian Agent, and two other whites,*] do us great good; they counsel us in trouble; they teach us how to be comfortable at all times. Our friends the Quakers do more. They give us ploughs, and teach us how to use them. They tell us we are accountable beings. But they do not tell us we must change our religion. — We are satisfied with what they do, and with what they say.

"'Brother! — For these reasons we cannot receive your offers. We have other things to do, and beg you to make your mind easy, without troubling us, lest our heads should be too much loaded, and by and by burst.'

"At the same Council, the following reply was made by Red-Jacket, in behalf of his tribe, to the application of a Mr. Richardson, to buy out their right to the reservations lying in the territory commonly called the Holland Purchase.

"Brother! — We opened our ears to the talk you lately delivered to us, at our council-fire. In doing important business it is best not to tell long stories, but to come to it in a few words. We therefore shall not repeat your talk, which is fresh in our minds. We have well considered it, and the advantages in our answer, which is not from the speaker alone, but from all the Sachems and Chiefs now around our council-fire.

"'Brother! — We know that great men, as well as great nations, have different interests and different minds, and do not see the same light, — but we hope our answer will be agreeable to you and your employers.

"" Brother! — Your application for the purchase of our lands is to our minds very extraordinary. It has been made in a crooked manner. You have not walked in the straight path pointed out by the great Council of your nation. You have no writings from your great Father, the President. In making up our minds we have looked back, and remembered how the Yorkers purchased our lands in former times. They bought them, piece after piece, — for a little money paid to a few men in our nation, and not to all our brethren, — until our planting and hunting grounds have become very small, and if we sell them, we know not where to spread our blankets.

"Brother! - You tell us your employers have purchased of the Council of Yorkers, a right to buy our lands. We do not

[&]quot;* An Indian Interpreter, and an Agent of the Society of Friends for improving the condition of the Indians."

understand how this can be. The lands do not belong to the Yorkers; they are ours, and were given to us by the Great

" Brother ! -- We think it strange that you should jump over the lands of our brethren in the East, to come to our council-fire so far off, to get our lands. When we sold our lands in the East to the white people, we determined never to sell those we

kept, which are as small as we can comfortably live on.

" Brother! -- You want us to travel with you and look for new lands. If we should sell our lands and move off into a distant country towards the setting sun, we should be looked upon in the country to which we go, as foreigners and strangers. We should be despised by the red, as well as the white men, and we should soon be surrounded by the white people, who will there also kill our game, and come upon our lands and try to get them from us.

"' Brother! -- We are determined not to sell our lands, but to continue on them. We like them. They are fruitful, and produce us corn in abundance for the support of our women

and children, and grass and herbs for our cattle.

"' Brother! - At the treaties held for the purchase of our lands, the white men, with sweet voices and smiling faces, told us they loved us, and that they would not cheat us, but that, the king's children on the other side of the lake would cheat us. When we go on the other side of the lake, the king's children tell us your people will cheat us. These things puzzle our heads, and we believe that the Indians must take care of themselves, and not trust either in your people, or in the king's children.

"' Brother! - At a late council we requested our agents to tell you that we would not sell our lands, and we think you have not spoken to our agents, or they would have told you so. and we should not have met you at our council-fire at this

""Brother! - The white people buy and sell false rights to our lands, and your employers have, you say, paid a great price for their rights. They must have a plenty of money, to spend it in buying false rights to lands belonging to Indians. loss of it will not hurt them, but our lands are of great value to us, and we wish you to go back with our talk to your employers, and tell them and the Yorkers that they have no right to buy and sell false rights to our lands.

"' Brother! - We hope you clearly understand the ideas we have offered. This is all we have to say." - Vol. II. pp.

279 - 284.

We hope to meet Mr. Thatcher frequently in the field of literature, particularly of historical literature and antiquarian research, for which he appears to have a singular mental aptitude. We shall always stand ready to award him critical justice, and shall be happy, at any time, to review another, or any number, of his books.

ART. XIV. — An Address, delivered before the Trustees, Students, and Friends of the Newton Theological Institution, November 14, 1832. By JAMES D. KNOWLES, Professor of Pastoral Duties. Boston. Lincoln and Edmands. 1832. 8vo. pp. 24.

APART from the intrinsic merits of this "Address," which are sufficiently great to deserve attention, we promptly seize upon it as an occasion for speaking of a young but promising institution, intended to furnish ample means for rearing a pure and learned ministry for a denomination of Christians very numerous in the United States.

After "an explanation of his reasons for resigning the pastoral office, and accepting" that of Professor of Pastoral duties in the Newton Theological Institution, Professor Knowles proceeds to "present a brief review of the progress of theological education" among the Baptist churches in this country. It has been a very prevalent opinion that the Baptists in past times, over a great portion of our country, have been accustomed to decry human learning as an auxiliary in the communication of divine knowledge, and therefore have not duly appreciated the importance of a well-educated clergy. But it seems that those who have adopted this opinion have not sufficiently considered all the circumstances of the case, and that if that denomination in any quarter has heretofore been justly chargeable with contempt of human learning, this unreasonable prejudice never existed to the extent to which many have supposed it did.

"The Baptists," says professor Knowles, "have never, as a denomination, deserved the reproach of considering human learning as an unnecessary, and much less, as an undesirable, acquisition to a preacher of the Gospel. The first Baptist minister in this country, Roger Williams, was well accomplish-

ed in the learning of his times, and was fully able to cope with Cotton and Hooker. Among the Baptist ministers of each succeeding generation, there have been a respectable number of well educated men. Our churches, it is believed, have always selected, as their Pastors, the ablest and most learned men whom they could obtain, and who possessed, in addition to learning, the more important qualification of piety. It is an honor to the Baptist churches, that they have always considered piety as the first and indispensable requisite in a minister. They have never allowed any degree of genius or of mental cultivation to compensate for the want of a heart renewed by the Holy Spirit, and moved to undertake the care of souls by the constraining love of Christ. They have steadily resisted the allurements of worldly policy, which, by admitting brilliant and learned but unholy men into the pulpit, might have contributed to the temporary popularity and growth of the denom-This fundamental principle led, of necessity, to the introduction of many unlearned men into the ministry. Well educated and pious men have always been, and still are, too few in number, to furnish an adequate supply of pastors. The churches were increasing, and must have ministers. They would, generally, have preferred learned men, but these could not be found in sufficient numbers." p. 4.

"It was not, moreover, a contempt of education, which prevented the early Baptists from providing the means of literary and theological instruction. They were too few in number, too poor, too widely scattered, and, we may add, were, in some parts of the land, too sorely oppressed, during the first generations, to erect seminaries of learning." p. 5.

Professor Knowles goes on to show what provision was made from time to time, after the middle of the last century, as the Baptist churches multiplied and their wealth increased, for extending the means of education. In passing he commemorates some of the most distinguished divines of his denomination who have toiled in the cause of preparing young men for the ministry, and bestows a few words of well deserved praise upon the late Dr. Staughton, who was "among the foremost leaders in the work of education."

Next to the review of the progress of education in the Baptist Church, Professor Knowles speaks "of the causes which led to the establishment of the Institution" with which he is now connected. It is remarkable not only that the first Institution in this country for the express purpose of

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theological education, commenced with the beginning of the present century, but also that the Institutions of this kind already amount to more than twenty in number. That dstinct provision was not made long before for training young men for the work of the Christian ministry, is accounted for in some degree, by the fact adverted to by Professor Knowles; namely, that "our earliest Universities and Colleges were, in fact, designed to be Theological schools."

Of the causes which have led different denominations of Christians to establish Theological schools, the first that is mentioned is "the progress of general science; which has so multiplied the subjects of study at the Colleges, that little

space can be allotted to ethics or to theology."

"Another cause, which has increased this necessity, is the general advancement of society. Education, like a mighty tide, has been elevating the whole community. The public mind, having become more enlarged and cultivated, has demanded higher attainments in its religious teachers. An enlightened, inquisitive understanding requires, that whatever is proposed for its belief and guidance, should be sustained by adequate evidence and enforced by sound argument. This evidence and these arguments, too, must be presented in a manner suited to gratify a cultivated taste, or the attention cannot be won, and the mind cannot be approached. The days, when religion was received with implicit trust, have nearly passed, and the minister now must not expect men to believe his declarations, merely because they emanate from the pulpit." p. 8.

To the causes already mentioned, Professor Knowles adds, "the progress of infidelity," "the revival of the missionary spirit," and "the character, institutions, and destiny of our country," as among the strong reasons why the Christian minister should be armed with the best weapons, and furnished with the highest skill in their use. But we pass to the facts and circumstances which relate particularly to the Newton Theological School.

"While all the general reasons for the establishment of these institutions applied, with their full force, to the Baptist churches, the fact, that other Christians had erected theological schools, formed another and a strong motive to the Baptists to make a more adequate provision for the education of their ministers. Justice to the cause of truth required them not to allow that cause to suffer, for the want of ministers as well furnished with human erudition as those of other denominations.

"The Newton Theological Institution was founded in November, 1825, by the Massachusetts Education Society, which appointed the first Professor, and commenced the measures which resulted in the incorporation of the Institution, in February, 1826, and the appointment of a Board of Trustees. The Institution began its operations, November 28th, 1825, with three students, in the family of Professor Chase, that able and steadfast friend of learning, to whose toils and sacrifices, the Baptist churches are incalculably indebted for the advancement of education among their young ministers. The failure of his health, and his temporary absence, we all deeply regret. May his gracious Master preserve him, and speedily restore him to

his family and to this Institution.

"On the gradual progress of this Seminary to its present prosperous condition, I need not enlarge. From three students, it has increased to forty, the present number in the regular classes. More than thirty have received instruction here, and have left the Institution, most of whom are now toiling in this country, chiefly as pastors, three are missionaries to Burmah, and six are in the great Western valley. By the blessing of God, by the liberality of the churches, by the unwearied labors, prudence, piety, and learning of the two senior Professors, as well as by the general demeanor and proficiency of its students, the Institution has risen to its present elevation, and has won its present place in the confidence and affections of the churches." p. 10.

Under the third division of his "Address," Professor Knowles speaks of the studies pursued in the Newton Institution. We have room to introduce only the following brief summary.

"The regular course occupies three years, and embraces 'Biblical Literature, Ecclesiastical History, Biblical Theology, Pastoral Duties, and, in short, the various studies and exercises appropriate to a theological institution, designed to assist those who would understand the Bible clearly, and, as faithful ministers of Christ, inculcate its divine lessons the most usefully."

"The plan of the institution thus contemplates four Professorships; and it has been the design of the Trustees, that all these chairs should be occupied, as soon as their funds would permit. Two professors have hitherto sustained the labors which the regulations assign to four. A third Professor is now added to the number, and a fourth will, it is hoped, be introduced at an early period. A Professor of Ecclesiastical History seems to be specially needed in a Baptist institution, since

the principles which distinguish the Baptists require them to sift thoroughly the great mass of history and tradition, and extract from the rubbish the pure truth." p. 11.

We are pleased that the Newton Theological Institution is making such advances, and we trust that the chief rivalry among the various Institutions of a similar kind in our country will be to make the most learned theologians and the most exemplary Christian ministers.

ART. XV.—A Poem on the Meditation of Nature, spoken Sept. 26th, 1832, before the Association of the Alumni of Washington College. By PARK BENJAMIN. Hartford. F. J. Huntington, 1832. Svo. pp. 24.

In his Preface, Mr. Benjamin offers an excuse for giving this poem to the public. Its merit, however, is of itself a sufficient apology. We have been compelled, in the ordinary course of our vocation, to read much bad poetry, and it is truly refreshing to meet with a beautiful strain like this. Mr. Benjamin has chosen a subject which may, in some sense, be considered common-place, - but it is one of the great common-places which can never lose their interest; which will always inspire the noblest poetry; which will be dear to man, so long as he has a soul capable of comprehending the beautiful and sublime. The poem before us gives evidence The train of thought is flowing and of a true poetic vein. easily followed, and beautifully associated with the appearances of nature. The sentiments are pure, and at the same time perfectly free from mawkishness; and the language is simple as well as poetical. There are no passages of overpowering brilliancy, but there are many illuminated by the soft and serene light of an imagination teeming with images of quiet leveliness. The versification is not elaborate, but graceful and harmonious. The choice of words, epithets, and expressions, is in general guided by a correct taste, and a nice discernment of the proprieties of speech. As a specimen we may take the opening of the poem.

"How priceless is the lesson that we learn
From Nature's bright, yet ever-varying, page!
In youth's warm glow, when rays of promise burn,
And in the frosty evening of old age,

One joy abides within the fervent heart,
Which only can with life and hope depart.
It is to gaze on Nature, and to feel,
Though time may on our pathway darkly steal
And veil the firmament with gathering shades,
That her surpassing beauty never fades;
That slow decay can never waste her forms
Of stirring grandeur or serene repose:—
Around her sweep the lightning-pinioned storms,
Upon her bosom rest the glittering snows,
Still she revives, and, undecaying, smiles;
Her waters leap in gladness to the sea,

Brighter than emeralds gleam her myriad isles,
Along her shores, the soft gale wasted free,
O'er the vast continent careering, flings
Odor and freshness from its balmy wings!" — pp. 7, 8.

And the following in a somewhat higher strain:

"Gaze on the sun in his imperial height! Beneath his eye uncounted planets lay, Wide o'er creation pours his lavish light, From the beginning he has ruled the day. How kingly is his sceptre! see him wave Its lustre o'er the firmament - and where Fly the wild tempests that beneath him rave? No trace of storm-cloud lingers on the air; But Heaven is beauteous as the pensive smile, When joy succeeds to sorrow in the heart. And oh, how brightly gleams that crimson smile. Eve's lonely star, serenely and apart, When o'er the east the rainbow's arch is thrown, And sinks the day-god, gorgeous and alone! There 's glory in his setting - but the time, When, like a monarch from his throne sublime, He gazes o'er the world in mightiest power, Comes with the stillness of the morning hour. On all alike his equal radiance streams; The humblest flower receives his earliest beams. The smallest fountain revels in his ray, Beneath his glance old Ocean's billows play, His smiles upon the lowliest valley rest, And proudly glisten on the mountain's crest, He looks as sweetly on the cottage home As on the splendor of a regal dome, And each faint star, that gems the distant sky, Drinks the full lustre of his glorious eye!" - pp. 15, 16. We might detect some faults in this production, and perhaps it would be well to mention, that the thoughts and language are at times not sufficiently condensed. Sometimes an elevated strain ends with a line or half a line, which weakens the effect. In one or two instances we caught at that kind of sparkling expression, which does not belong to true poetry, and consequently has no business here. We do not like such epithets as priceless, fadeless, and breezy; and the first of them is of doubtful correctness. Mr. Benjamin's faults are such as may easily be corrected by additional experience in this delightful art, a habit of deeper thinking, which will naturally grow out of it, and a wider range of literary attainment, which his scholar-like taste will doubtless lead him to cultivate.

ART. XVI. — An Address delivered before the Union Literary Society of Miami University, on the Twenty-fifth of September, at their Anniversary Celebration. By TIMOTHY WALKER, A. M. Cincinnati. Corey & Fairbank. 1832. 8vo. pp. 26.

MR. WALKER is a clear thinker and a powerful writer. His style is nervous and carefully formed. This discourse comes opportunely at this alarming crisis, when the elements of discord are at work, and the great passions of the nation seem on the point of a tremendous conflict. It is especially addressed to young men, and contains matter for serious The subject is, "the Evil Influences to which American young men are exposed in the commencement of their career." The topics are five. First, young men " are apt to overlook the distinction between character and reputation." "The distinction is this; character is determined by what a man is, in reference to himself alone; reputation, by what he seems to be, in the opinion of the world." The second topic is, the "erroneous impressions respecting the importance of wealth, as one of the objects of life." The third is, "false notions of the importance of office." The fourth is, "false impressions respecting the nature of civil liberty." Mr. Walker's remarks upon this subject appear to us very

sound and discriminating. They are thus introduced:

"There is implanted in every human breast, an instinctive aversion to all restraint; though, in the social state, this aversion yields to a conviction of the manifest necessity that government should have power enough to execute its purposes, The simple theory of republicanism is, that the people voluntarily part with a portion of their natural rights, to obtain increased protection for the rest; and these rights, thus parted with. constitute the power of government. But the love of power is quite as strong and universal as the love of liberty; and hence the operation of the republican system must be a perpetual contest between two antagonist principles; as the love of power tends constantly to encroachment on the part of government. so the love of freedom must tend constantly to resistance on the part of the people. Hence it is, that jealousy of power, which is but another name for the love of liberty, becomes our great republican safeguard; and, as such, can never be too sacredly cherished. But then jealousy of governmental power, is a very different thing from jealousy of individual superiority; though, by a most natural transition, one is apt to slide into the In fact, it has become a fundamental maxim with us, that liberty and equality must go hand in hand. These magic words have been so often used together, that we are apt to be startled at the idea of contemplating them apart. In our magna charta of liberty, it is declared, 'that all men are created equal.' In many of the state constitutions, it is declared, 'that all men are born free and equal.' Now to these declarations, rightly interpreted, every body assents. But the remark is obvious, that admitting all men to be born equal, it is not asserted that they must remain so. To guard, however, against mistake, the framers of the constitution of Ohio adopted a different phraseology. Their language is, 'that all men are born equally free and independent.' This language seems to me far preferable to the other, because it is strictly and literally true: whereas, it is not strictly and literally true, that all men There are endless inequalities are born absolutely equal. among men, at the moment of their birth, over which human laws can have no influence, because they result from that law of laws, the paramount and unchanging law of nature. They are not inequalities of right but of circumstances, of capacity, strength, opportunity, and so forth. In these respects, so far from all men being born equal, it is doubtful if any two can be found exactly equal. And if we are thus unequal at the moment of birth, how much more so must we become, as these infant germs of inequality develope themselves in after years? Nor are these inequalities repugnant to liberty. On the contrary, they are its genuine, natural, and necessary offspring. What is it to be born free, and to live free, but to have the capacity and the right to differ indefinitely from those around us, to soar above them, or descend below them? Our boasted liberty were an empty name, if all men are to be yoked together, lest some one should excel the rest. But there is no danger of this. It would require a sterner despotism than mankind were ever scourged with, to reduce all men to a level, and keep them there. Something like an approach to such a state, may be seen in the serfs of the feudal ages, or in the peasants of Russia, or in the slaves of our sister States; because their iron bondage hinders them from obeying the infinitely various impulses, to which the souls of freemen respond. But why argue upon a foregone conclusion? It is self-evident, that men will approximate to equality, not in proportion as they are most free, but precisely in proportion as they are most enslaved." - pp. 16-18.

The fifth and last topic is the "danger of being tinctured by the skepticism which is stalking through the land," Mr. Walker glances at some of the occasions of this skepticism, which are found partly in the taxes levied upon human credulity by retailers of news, by travellers, and even by historians. But he traces it especially to a sort of revolutionary spirit, which is every where awake respecting all matters of opinion; a spirit fostered by pride and vanity, a passion for originality, and for a reputation of rising superior to old prejudices and modes of thinking.

ERRATA IN No. XI.

Page 421, line 11, for Reader read Orator " 27, " practical " poetical

In No. XII.

Page 493, line 19, dele, arseniuretted hydrogen " lines 19, 20, " with metals

NOTE TO THE REVIEW OF IRIARTE'S FARLES.

In a note to the Review of Iriarte's Fables, as edited by Mr. Sales, Instructer in French and Spanish in Harvard Universi-

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ty, we said as follows:
"As to the text, we cannot consider the present to be equal to the Cambridge edition, in which the punctuation and the adoption of the Spanish Academy's orthography appear to have been more thoroughly attended to. Mr. Sales also professes to adopt the modern orthography of the Academy, but Gilguerillo, corcobo, &c. will be sought in vain by him who possesses only the last edition of the Academy's Dictionary. These deficiences and inconsistencies are due to a Madrid edition of the Fables. which Mr. Sales has followed with too little distrust."

American Monthly Review, No. XI. p. 406.

Mr. Sales, in answer to this, says to the Editor as follows: "I maintain that Gilguerillo, as I have spelt it, is right and that Xilguerillo, or Jilguerillo as it is spelt in the Cambridge edition, is wrong. And here is the proof. The last Treatise on Orthography by the Spanish Academy requires that no guttural syllable shall be written with x but with g before e and i. and with j before a, o, n; and although there are a few exceptions, Gilguerillo is not included among them, but is found in its place under G.

"As to corcobo instead of corcovo, I confess I hesitated somewhat between those two modes. However, as the copy I chiefly followed from the well known press of Sancha, in Madrid, yes, in Madrid! was sustained in this particular by another from that of Nuñez, in the same city; by another from Valencia, the Athens of Spain, and a beautiful and correct edition published in London by Josse, all printed within the period of twenty years of the present time, I determined to use b instead of v. Any one well versed in the Spanish Language knows that the b between two vowels is pronounced exactly as the v in the same position, and that the b is now supplanting and has already in many words taken the place of v in the said position; whether for its greater beauty or not, I cannot affirm, but such is the prevailing taste.

EXAMPLES:

Haber Amaba	instead of	haver through the whole conjugation. amava in all the imperfect tenses of the Indicative Mood of the first conjugation.	
Probar Escribir Habana		provar escrivir Havana	and in all their derivatives and compounds.

"As my publication is stereotyped, I judged I might anticipate a little what I consider will be the decree of the Spanish Academy on this subject.

"If you will have the goodness to look at page 101 of the Cambridge edition of Iriarte, you will find corcobo spelt as I spell it; and if you will look at the next page, you will find it spelt in the same manner, and also at the bottom of page 112."

INTELLIGENCE.

Bibliotheca Scoto-Celtica; or, an Account of all the Books which have been Printed in the Guelic Language. With Bibliographical and Biographical Notices. By JOHN REID. Glasgow. John Reid & Co. 8vo. pp. 178.

THE author of this curious book having sent us a copy of the same, we gladly avail ourselves of the opportunity of making some extracts from it, which we are confident will be very acceptable to our literative readers.

ry readers.

The title is sufficiently descriptive of the body of the work; but the "Introduction" furnishes many interesting particulars concerning the history and present state of the Celtic Dialects, from which we proceed to make a few extracts.

"It is now no longer a matter of dispute, that at no very distant period, the several dialects of the Celtic tongue, known by the name of the Cornish, Waldensian, Basque, Bas Bretagne, Welsh, Manks, Gaelic, and Irish, had all one origin. The first two of these at the present day have become extinct, but the others are spoken even now by some millions of the hardiest men in Europe. The Gaelic, or more properly the Scotch Gaelic, of whose literature the present Work professes to be a history, is without doubt derived from the Irish Gaelic—and we are confident any unprejudiced person who examines at all into the history of the two languages, will admit, that not more than 350 years ago, they must have been not only the same language but identically the same dialect."

"THE CORNISH is supposed to have been originally spoken by a warlike people, who once dwelt on the banks of the Loire, and had fled to Britain on being invaded by some of the Teutonic tribes.

During the 15th and early part of the 16th century it was almost the only language in use in Cornwall, but from 1560 to 1602 it declined very rapidly. In 1610 it was principally spoken only in the western part of that county. In 1640, however, Jackson, vicar of Pheoke, found such a strong and growing attachment to the language

among his parishioners, that he was constrained to administer divine service in Cornish, as they were resolved to understand no other. About 1701 the language again suffered another relapse, and was confined to a few small villages."

"THE WALDENSIAN dialect of the Celtic was spoken by that celebrated race of men, well known by the name of the Waldenses. Almost the only record we now have of it is in twenty-one volumes of manuscripts collected by Sir Samuel Morland, who was sent by the Protector to Tuscany to intercede with the Duke of Savoy in behalf

of the persecuted Waldenses."

"THE BASQUE, or as it is sometimes denominated Basc, Vasc, Gascon, Biscayan, or Cantabrian, was anciently spoken by the descendents of the Cantabri and Vascones, whose language at one time extended along the banks of the Ebro and into Spain. It is, at present, spoken chiefly by the people who live on the western side of the Pyrenees and inhabit Navarre, Alcava, Biscaya, and Guipuscoa, and a considerable portion of the inhabitants of the south-west of France, who understand no other language. There has been much dispute regarding its origin. It appears to be a very mixed language, possessing more in common with the other languages of Europe than any of the other Celtic tribes. Although Lhuyd almost demonstrates its lineal descent from the parent Celtic, yet Adelung is of opinion that it could not be viewed as a branch of the Celtic."

"THE BAS BRETAGNE OF ARMORIC is spoken, says Lagonidec, at the present day, by about four millions of the subjects of France. The structure of the language is decidedly Celtic, and bears a very great affinity to the Welsh, which may be accounted for from the circumstance of a Colony of British Celts going over to the Armoric Celts. It is related that, after the capture of Belleisle in 1761, such of the soldiers as belonged to Wales were easily understood by the country people. The literature of the language is contained in about

forty volumes."

"THE MANKS, which is the vernacular language of the inhabitants of the Isle of Man, must appear to every one in the least conversant in general Celtic Literature, to be as completety the connecting link between the Irish and the Welsh as, geographically, the island is between the two countries.

"The Manks bears a greater resemblance in many respects to the Scottish Gaelic than to the Irish, being similar to the Scottish Gaelic

in its structure, and in the most of its vocables.

"The Manks is, however, sadly corrupted, and has a vast mixture

of Saxon words."

"THE WELSH language, spoken in its greatest purity, at the present day, in North Wales, is undoubtedly of very ancient Celtic origin. This dialect in point of antiquity lays claim to rank next the Irish; it has also been more cultivated than the other branches which we have noticed."

"THE IRISH. That the Irish dialect is more ancient than any of the other Celtic branches cannot be doubted by any, unless their minds are imbued with the particular prejudice of their own dialects. But to any one not a Celt, who will compare the various dialects, and mark their differences, such a conclusion will be certain. Lhuyd, who was himself a Welshman, remarks regarding this dialect, 'To the antiquary this language is of the utmost importance; it is rich in pure and simple primitives, and which are proved such by the sense and structure of the longest written compounds; by the supply of many roots which have been long obsolete in the Welsh and Armorican, but still occur in the compounds of these languages; and by their use in connecting the Celtic dialects with Latin, Greek, and Gothic, and perhaps with some of the Asiatic languages."

"Scottish Gaelic. That this dialect of the Celtic has been derived from the Irish Gaelic, we have not the smallest doubt; but the subject is involved in much obscurity, on account of the very limited number of Gaelic manuscripts that exist; and even the few that do exist, are not entitled to claim any very ancient origin.

"At the present day, there are two distinct dialects of Gaelic spoken in the Highlands of Scotland, so different, indeed, that the natives in many cases, cannot understand each other; arising partly from dissimilarity of pronunciation, and partly from using different words, and different flexions. The West Gaelic appears decidedly to be the oldest of the two, and is spoken in the County of Argyle, and other western parts of the Highlands; in its character and genius, it is less removed from the Irish than the other, which is called the North Gaelic, and is spoken in Inverness-shire, and the other northern parts of the Highlands of Scotland. However much these two dialects may differ, it appears, we think, unquestionable that the North Gaelic has been derived from the West Gaelic, in the same manner as the West was derived from the Irish; and that there is as much difference between the North and West Gaelic of the present day, as there was between the West Gaelic and the Irish, a century ago."

"The first printed work in the Gaelic Language now extant, is the translation of John Knox's Liturgy, by Bishop Carsewell, published at Edinburgh, in 1567. There appears not to have been any other work printed for nearly a hundred years after this, except the translation of Calvin's Catechism, printed at Edinburgh, in 1631."

Ossian's Poems. "There remains a fact, which all that has been said against the authenticity of Ossian has never overturned; namely, that many of the originals of these poems, translated by M'Pherson, exist at the present day. A question of great importance hinges upon this, namely: — If M' Pherson was the author of Ossian, and if it was originally written in English, who was the author of the Gaelic poems published by the Highland Society and Dr Smith? The existence of these originals proves, beyond dispute, that, at a former period, how far remote none at present can tell, there were Poets of very high merit in the Highlands of Scotland. Some there are who assert that these originals are merely translations from the English, to support an impudent attempt at forgery; but those who assert this know nothing of the language, or are led away by prejudice and bigotry. No one who is at all acquainted with these Gaelic originals, and versant in the late poetry of the Highlanders, but must admit, that they are entitled to claim a much more antiquated origin than the time of M' Pherson. The Ossianic poetry in matter, manner, measure, and majesty of language, differs as much from the most talented of the modern Gaelic

muse, as the Homeric poetry does from the most insipid Heroics of the present day; and M' Pherson or any of his friends were as incapable of committing the forgery as any of our bards are of continuing the story of Childe Harold or Don Juan."

Gaelic Books. "From 1>00, to the present day, there have been more publications in the Gaelic language than all those published prior to that date. Besides the various editions of the Bible, New Testament, Psalter, Catechism, and other books formerly mentioned detached portions of the Scriptures for the use of schools have been printed. Three new translations of the Psalter have been published, and editions of the Shorter Catechism, with the Scripture proofs, have also made their appearance. Stewart of Dingwall and Currie of Prospect, have each published a Gaelic Grammar.

Prospect, have each published a Gaelic Grammar.

"Prior to 1821, although there were a few Vocabularies of the language, yet there was no good Dictionary; but since that period, four have been published."

"At the present moment, although great exertions are making by many distinguished friends of Celtic literature to perpetuate the language; yet we are afraid that ere half a century elapse, it will have shared the fate of the Waldensian and the Cornish, and have become subject of history alone. Although the exertions of the friends of Gaelic literature are judicious and powerful, yet they have to contend with opponents to which they can offer but trifling resistance. The steam-boats and stage-coaches which are now visiting the remotest districts of the Highlands, do more in one season to chase away the Gaelic, than all the combined powers of those who are laboring in its behalf, could remedy in twenty years.

"In many places of the Highlands, parents are also unwilling that their children should "waste time" in learning to read the Gaelic, in consequence of which the greater part of the youthful Gael talk neither English, Scottish, nor Gaelic, but a jargon made up of the three."

LIST OF NEW BOOKS

FOR DECEMBER, 1832.

- Carey & Hart, Philadelphia. Domestic French Cookery, chiefly translated from Sulpice Bance. By Miss Leslie, Author of "Seventy-five Receipts,"
- G. Latimer & Co., Philadelphia. The Christian's Own Book. Meditations drawn from the Piety of Former Ages. With an Introductory Essay. By Stephen H. Tyng, A. M., Rector of St. Paul's Church, Philadelphia.
- Carey & Lea, Philadelphia. The Complete Poetical Works of Joanna Baillie. First American Edition.
 - Family Cabinet Atlas. First American Edition, Revised, Corrected, and Enlarged.
 - Mansfield l'ark; a Novel. By Miss Austen, Author of "Pride and Prejudice," "Emma," &c. &c. In 2 vols.
- T. T. Ash, Philadelphia. The Memoirs of Count Lavallette. Written by Himself. First American, from the Second London Edition.
- Key, Meilke, & Biddle, Philadelphia. The Religious Souvenir, a Christmas, New Year's, and Birth-Day Present, for 1833. Edited by G. T. Bedel, D. D. Rector of St. Andrew's Church, Philadelphia.
- R. H. Small, Philadelphia. A Treatise on the Law of Executors and Admini-trators. By Edward V. Williams, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. With Notes and References to the Decisions of the Courts of this Country, by Francis J. Troubat. 2 vols.
- J. & J. Harper, New York. Henry Masterton. By J. P. R. Jámes, Esq., Author of "Richelieu," "Philip Augustus," &c. &c. In 2 volumes, being Nos. 29 and 30 of the Library of Select Novels.
 - A Treatise on the Millenium; in which the prevailing Theories on that subject are carefully examined; and the true Scriptural Doctrine attempted to be elicited and established. By George Bush, A. M., Author of "Questions and Notes upon Genesis and Exodus."
 - Atalantis. A Story of the Sea; in three Parts.
 - Tales and Novels by Maria Edgeworth. Vols. 3 and 4. Vol. 3d, containing Moral Tales. Vol. 4th, containing Popular Tales.
 - Historical and Descriptive Account of British India, from the most remote period to the present time. By Hugh Murray, Esq., F. R. S. E. With a Map and Engravings. In 3 volumes, being Nos. 47, 48, and 49 of the Family Library.

- Peabody & Co., New York. Roman Nights; or the Tomb of the Scipios. By Alesandro Verri. In 2 vols. Translated, with Notes and numerous fine Plates.
 - The Hunchback. A Play in 5 Acts. By James Sheridan Knowles, Author of "Virginius."
- W. & A. Gould & Co., Alb-iny. Report of Cases Argued and Determined in the Supreme Court of Judicature, and in the Court for the Trial of Impeachments and the Correction of Errors, of the State of New York. By John L. Wendell, Counsellor at Law. Vol. 7th.
- H. Howe & Co., New-Haven, (Con.) C. Cornelii Taciti Historiarum Libri Quinque. Accedit de Moribus Germanorum Libellus; Julii Agricolæ Vita; de Oratoribus Dialogus. Cum excerptis Variorum Notis.
- F. J. Huntington, Hartford, (Con.) A Poem on the Meditation of Nature, spoken September 26th, 1832, before the Association of the Alumni of Washington College. By Park Benjamin.
- L. C Bowles, Boston Christians called unto Liberty. A Sermon preached at Derry, N. H. September 30, 1830, occasioned by the gathering of a Unitarian Congregation in that place. By Andrew Bigelow.
 - Stories about Boston and its Neighbourhood. By Robin Carver. With
 - Woman in her Social and Domestic Character. By Mrs. John Sandford. From the London Edition.
 - Little Songs for little Boys and Girls. By the Author of "The Well-Spent Hour," &c.
- Carter, Hendee, & Co., Boston. The Little Reader; a Progressive Step to Knowledge. With Engravings.
 - The Ladder to Learning; a collection of Fables, arranged progressively, in Words of one, two, and three syllables; with original Morals. Edited and Improved by Mrs. Trimmer. First American, from the Thirteenth London Edition. With Seventy-nine Wood Engravings.
 - Edition. With Seventy-nine Wood Engravings.

 The Child's Own Book of Tales and Anecdotes about Dogs. With Engrav-
 - Bible Illustrations; or a Description of Manners and Customs peculiar to the East; especially explanatory of the Holy Scriptures. By the Rev. B. H. Draper, Author of "Scripture Stories from the 'd and New Testament." American Edition, with many Improvements. Illustrated by Engravings
- Stimpson & Clapp, Boston. The American Library of Useful Knowledge. Published by Authority of the Boston Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. Vol. 7th. Containing an Universal History, in Twenty-four Books. Translated from the German of John von Müller. In 4 volumes, complete.
 - Some Account of the Life and Works of Sir Walter Scott. By Allan Cunningham,
 - A History of the American Revolution. Published in London under the Superintendence of the Society for the Duffusion of Useful Knowledge. First American Edition, with Notes and Cuts.
 - C. Bowen, Boston. Discourses. By William Ellery Channing.
 - Mr. Tuckerman's Tenth Semiannual Report, as a Minister at Large in Boston. Published by the American Unitarian Association, being No. 66 of U. A. Tracts.
- Marsh, Capen, & Lyon, Boston. Funeral Oration; delivered before the citizens of Boston, assembled at the Old South Church, November 17, at the Burial of Gaspar Spurzheim, M. D., of the Universities of Vienna and Paris, and Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians in London. By Charles Follen, J. U. D., Professor of German Literature in Harvard College.

William Hyde & Co., Boston. — Memoir of Felix Neff, Pastor of the High Alps. By William Stephen Gilly, M. A., Prebendary of Durham, and Vicar of

Norham. From the London Edition, with Notes.

Geology. Comprising the Elements of the Science in its present advanced state. Designed for the use of Schools and Private Learners. Illustrated Comprising the Elements of the Science in its present advanced by Engravings. By D. J. Browne.

Perkins & Marvin, Boston. - The Eclectic Reader, designed for Schools and Academies. By B. B. Edwards, Editor of the American Register.

- Allen & Ticknor, Boston. Caspar Hauser. An Account of an Individual kept in a dungeon, separated from all communication with the World, from early Childhood to about the Age of Seventeen. Drawn up from Legal Documents. By Anselm von Feuerbach, President of one of the Bavarian Courts of Appeal, &c. Translated from the German.
- J. H. A. Frost, Boston. Liber Primus; or First Book of Latin Exercises. By Joseph Dana, A. M., to which have been added, Colloquies from Erasmus, with a Vocabulary. By Charl's K. Dillaway, A. M., Principal of the Boston Latin School. I'welfth Edition, Revised and Corrected.
- Lilly, Wait, & Co., Boston. Juvenile Poems for Young Children. By Wm. Wordsworth.
- James Loring, Boston. A Treatise on Harmony; Written and Composed for the Use of the Pupils at the Royale Conservatoire of Music, in Paris. By Catel, Professor of Harmony in that Establishment. From the English Copy, with Additional Notes and Explanations. By Lowell Mason.
- Lincoln & Edmands, Boston. The North American Arithmetic. Part 2d.
 Uniting Oral and Written Exercises in Corresponding Chapters. By Frederic Emerson, Late Principal in the Department of Arithmetic, Boylston School, Boston.
- Hilliard, Gray & Co. The Greek Reader. By Frederic Jacobs, Professor of the Gymnasium at Gotha, and Editor of the Anthologia. The Fourth Ameriena from the Ninth German Edition. Adapted to the Grammar of Buttmann and Fisk, with New Selections from the Text of Jacobs, and his Annotations more at large than in the former American Editions, together with many Additional Notes, Original and Selected, by the Editors.

Brown, Shattuck, & Co, Cambridge. — A Practical Treatise on the Trustee Process, or Foreign Attachment, of the Laws of Massachusetts and Maine. With an Appendix. Containing the Statutes of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New-Hampshire, Vermont, and Maine, on that subject. By L. S. Cushing.